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A Monthly Educational Journal.

E. E. WHITE, EDITOR.

VOLUME - - - - I.

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E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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OBJECT LESSONS: THEIR VALUE AND PLACE IN A COURSE OF STUDY.*

BY MISS D. A. LATHROP, CINCINNATI, O.

I have a growing conviction that much time would be saved, although, it may be, a great deal of latent argumentative ability would remain undeveloped, if persons essaying to discuss a subject understood each other sufficiently to know that they were talking about the same thing.

I beg, therefore, to be pardoned, if, in the beginning, I state in what sense I shall use the phrase, "Object Lessons." Few educational terms are more often on the lips of teachers; and to none, perhaps, are attached more diverse meanings.

First, negatively. By an object lesson I do not mean *a series of statements, or questions and answers, or facts arranged in any form and read to a class.* I think it a not uncommon practice for untrained teachers to read to their schools, day by day, lessons from one of the several manuals of object lessons, requiring their pupils to listen, and possibly to reproduce orally, or in writing, the substance of what is read. Of course, I need not say to you that all this, considered as object lessons, is mere nonsense. Neither is the case improved if the teacher commit the lesson of the book, and recite it to her pupils. There is none of the soul

* A paper read before the National Normal Association, Aug. 16, 1870.

of object teaching in such an exercise, and, that being absent, it is better to allow the dead form an undisturbed repose.

Nor is a talk or lecture by the teacher *alone*, however interesting or profitable, properly an object lesson; for the object lesson presupposes the children to discover for themselves, and state to the teacher the result of their investigations. She is merely to serve as guide over this territory, new to them, entirely familiar to her. She is to know what they ought to see while passing on, and to lead them by such routes as shall enable them certainly to discover what she has planned, but so adroitly does she do her work that they suppose that they are finding out independently; and so are not only inspired with confidence in their own ability to get knowledge from things, but they find that peculiar pleasure which for our incitement to investigation, the Creator has inseparably linked to discovery.

Those who attempt object lessons by merely reading or rehearsing, certainly fail to understand that the end of such a school exercise is found decidedly more in the *how* than in the *what*.

Again, it is quite common, especially in the higher grades, to confound object lessons and objective or illustrative teaching. One teacher imagines he has given an object lesson when he has cut an apple to illustrate the value of, or the mode of operating upon common fractions; another when he has brought out his tellurian to illustrate the relations of the earth and sun. These are not object lessons. The former is an arithmetic and the latter a geography lesson. The teacher illustrates the facts to be memorized; and so his teaching may very properly be called "illustrative teaching." All good teaching is and always has been such teaching.

Neither are object lessons to be confounded with oral teaching. That object lessons are oral, is true; but all oral teaching is by no means an object lesson. Grammar, geography, natural philosophy, or any other subject may be taught without putting text-books into the hands of the pupils. Even spelling may be taught orally, but be the farthest removed possible from an object lesson. Some have indicated their own misunderstanding and have confused others by confounding the two. They have objected to object lessons because they were incompatible with the use of books. *The advocate of object lessons does not, by this advocacy, at all indicate his opinion in regard to the use of text-books.*

If reference be made to "Sheldon's Manual of Elementary

Instruction," it will be seen that it gives occasion for still another misunderstanding of this term. In this book, as you are aware, object lessons are arranged, according to an underlying idea and an ultimate end, into several series—as Form, Color, Animals, Plants, Place, etc.,—the corresponding steps of which are to be carried forward simultaneously. All these start from the same point and diverge as the child advances, until what at first seemed only general conversations, being continued from day to day, according to a plan in the mind of the teacher, take a determinate form, and become oral geometry, oral geography, oral botany or zoology, and so on. Here occurs the misunderstanding, and very naturally, for the nomenclature is faulty. In addition to the animal series, the plant series, etc., there is a series upon miscellaneous objects for the especial study of the various properties of objects, leading to the idea of essential and non-essential properties; of the peculiar functions of the different senses, and the properties adapted to produce impressions upon each. This series is called, to distinguish it from the others, "Object Lessons;" that is, the general class term is applied to one of the subdivisions of the class as a distinguishing name. I use the term object lessons in its broadest, not in this limited sense.

Second, positively. What is an object lesson? It is a conversational lesson in which an object or its representation is studied by the pupils in the use of their various senses, under the guidance of the teacher. Such a lesson is given, *primarily*, for the purpose of encouraging children to investigate for themselves, and, *secondarily*, for the knowledge of the facts to be discovered—i. e., first, for discipline; second, for instruction.

Allow me to call your attention to some points in this definition.

1. *An object or its representation is present for study.* Some one inquires, "Would you never give a lesson upon an object not present?" I answer, rarely, and only when the members of the class have such familiarity with it as that their conception of the thing shall be to them as real an object of study as the object itself. Such conditions would almost never be met. A leading object of these lessons being to cultivate accurate observation, they should be so given as to allow the exercise of this power under the supervision of the teacher.

2. *It is conversational.* Children must not only be encouraged to see, but be allowed to tell what they see, or soon they will cease to look. There is so much delight in telling, that half

of object teaching in such an exercise, and, that being absent, it is better to allow the dead form an undisturbed repose.

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2. *It is conversational.* Children must not only be encouraged to see, but be allowed to tell what they see, or soon they will cease to look. There is so much delight in telling, that half

the world will search long and laboriously for something to tell, for the one reward of communicating it to the other half when found. This desire is innate, and its gratification necessary to the world's progress. Only conversational lessons afford children this stimulus to effort.

3. *It is under the guidance of the teacher.* She should hold the children to a point herself determines; only thus will she be able to make her work methodical. Each lesson should have a beginning, a progression, and a conclusion, containing a summary of events concisely stated—a confused and aimless talk is not worthy the name—and reference should be had in this summary to the order of importance and dependence of the facts observed. So each lesson becomes complete in itself. This does not mean that it is exhaustive. No teacher is under obligations to tell the whole truth to her pupils. Children are not competent to learn everything in regard to any object. It requires great skill in the teacher to select such facts for them as are adapted to their mental condition, and can be attached at most points to those already in possession. By a proper arrangement of these facts they become a clearly defined unit in the educational building, yet hold fixed and necessary relations to every other unit of the structure and to the structure itself. For each lesson should be given with reference to other lessons, oral or otherwise, so that by association it may be fastened in its place, and be made in its turn serviceable as a basis upon which to build future knowledge. Having stated what I understand by an object lesson, I propose to consider,

II. *The value of such lessons.*

1. As before said, one of the important ends they are adapted to secure is *the culture of the observation.* It is an undeniable fact that men do not get the "knowledge that is most worth" to them from books, but from contact with men and things; and it is marvelous how people can go through a world containing so much and see so little. Upon this point, Mr. Wilson of the Rugby School, very truly says:

"Eyes and No Eyes is the title of an old story, and it scarcely seems too strong a way of marking the difference between the powers of the cultivated naturalist and the ordinary gentleman ignorant of everything in nature. To the one, the stars of heaven and the stones of the earth, the forms of the hills and the flowers in the hedges, are a constant source of that great and peculiar pleasure derived from intelligence; and day by day do I see how boys increase their range of sight, and that not only of the things we teach them to see, but they outrun us and discover for themselves. This power once gained can never be lost."

This argument in favor of the introduction of science into British colleges applies with equal force to the introduction, by conversational lessons, of some of the elements of science into the colleges of the American people—the public schools. It is no poetic flight to say that the creation is crowded with wonders and beauties. There is but a single door of admission to all this display of the "excellency of wisdom"—that is the observation. By all means, as far as she may, the teacher should endeavor to give strength and range to the weak eyes of childhood.

2. *Object lessons cultivate ease and exactness of expression.* It is a universal complaint among thoughtful teachers, that our children talk poorly and write worse. There are two causes producing this state of things: first, a confusion and haziness of ideas; and, second, a lack of command of language. It is claimed that object lessons properly given, and their spirit prevailing in all the other school work, tend to the correction of both these evils; that is, they lead to the definiteness of ideas, and they teach clearness and propriety of expression. The children are led to talk, and, because deeply interested, lose their constraint and talk naturally. Nothing is more true than that talking is alone learned by talking. Here an opportunity is afforded as it is in no other lesson of the day for children to talk freely, the teacher noting and correcting errors and supplying the terms necessary for the proper expression of the child's thoughts. Before the conclusion of each lesson the children are encouraged, and assisted if need be, to give a connected and logical statement of what has been discovered in its development. This statement of results criticised and its faults corrected, the next work of the class is to reproduce it upon their slates, which are submitted to the criticism of the teacher. A teacher can not afford to esteem lightly such an opportunity for the culture of language. No reading, spelling or grammar lessons, as these subjects are ordinarily taught, furnishes an occasion for so much culture in this direction as an object lesson does.

3. *Object lessons lead children into fields of inquiry to which their attention might not otherwise be called.* So special abilities are discovered, and a broader basis of possibilities in life afforded. Men are often blacksmiths or clergymen, sailors or shopkeepers, not because they have special adaptation to these callings rather than to others, but because circumstances have drifted them into these channels. A starving minister is often a shoemaker, a gardener or a livery keeper, and does not know it. He only

knows he loves a good horse, enjoys his garden or his cow, more than he does his commentaries or his pulpit. That even children have special tastes and abilities, the careful observer has noted. I lay it down as a principle that schools should have the power of discovering and developing special abilities. We talk of symmetrical mental development. There is no such thing, and, if there were, it would be comparatively valueless. The doctrine of symmetrical development is well expressed in the old adage, "jack at all trades, master of none." The world has no great need of symmetrically developed men unless it be as lay figures. It wants men with strong specialties, unbalanced men; insane men, if all unbalanced men are insane. Men are born with different adaptations. God has designed them for different work. Happy are they if they succeed in finding each his own. Do not understand me to say that a child's strong aptitudes should be developed at the expense of everything else in his mentality. All I ask is that the apple tree shall not be so pruned as to keep it the size of the shrub at its side, because from their very germination the one is a tree, the other a shrub. If you spoil your apple tree, this much is certain, you will have no tree. The shrub will not grow to one, and you must remain satisfied with shrubs.

Object lessons help a boy discover his tastes. I know a case in point. A boy who had been the terror of his teachers for years, and seemed to lack all power of application, by a change of administration, came under the charge of a teacher who gave oral lessons in botany. This was entirely new to him. He became so interested in his investigations in this direction that his teacher tells me he often unsolicited went before school to a woods three miles away, to get specimens for the day's discussion. As you may suppose, he forgot all his annoying tricks. The result is he is one of the finest of teachers of this subject in a prominent school in Pennsylvania. I doubt if there are any "good for nothing" children. They are only not good for the use we attempt to put them to.

4. *Object lessons afford variety in school work.* Little children are driven in a flock over the threshold of the school room, leaving behind them every precious thing they know. Dolls and patchwork, carts and drums, whistles and strings, and, worst of all, their own freedom to jump and roll, and laugh and shout. All these possessions and privileges are forfeit for six interminable hours, for five or six days in the week. Neither you nor I could endure such a change of habit as every child is compelled

to do on entering our public schools. If it were not a digression I would here enter my protest against such cruelty to innocent little children. And what do they get to compensate for all their deprivation? In the morning, twenty minutes *A*, *B*, *C*, before recess, and fifteen minutes *A*, *B*, *C*, after recess; in the afternoon, twenty minutes *A*, *B*, *C*, before recess, and fifteen minutes *A*, *B*, *C*, after recess; all this, and two hundred and ninety minutes more or less each day of sitting still with folded hands, and not whispering, nor moving feet. If such a naughty thing is done, the very appropriate penalty is "staying after school" to "sit still" awhile. Now, in the name of all the benignities, I ask, Isn't this requiring too much? Can no way be devised to give these children something to amuse and at the same time to instruct them? Can no plan be proposed by which these that are always prattling at home, shall have an opportunity to do that they most need to do, viz., to talk, and be instructed how to talk correctly? Can not the little *minds* be set off upon a chase that shall relieve the weariness of the confined body? All this can be done by judiciously giving object lessons. New trains of thought are awakened, and manual exercise is rendered interesting in an attempt to express these thoughts in writing.

What is true of the youngest pupils is true in a modified sense of those who are older. If you, at dinner, lacked your dessert, you would never think of making up the deficit by an additional plate of beef and vegetables. You have eaten all you want of those. So the child, when he has finished all you can feed him of "the three R's," has an appetite for something further, and will still relish instruction, if you will "furnish forth" that which is new. If yeu can devise work that will give something to do, now here and now there, your children may be kept intensely busy and intensely in earnest all the time, and really be the better for their exercise.

5. *Object lessons, in the lower grades, prepare for books, and in the higher they supplement them.* As before stated, some suppose that those who most persistently advocate objective teaching, as uncompromisingly reject text-books. If I do not greatly mistake, such persons are in error. I have never so understood the opinions of those who most strenuously insist upon object lessons. I have no hesitancy in saying most unqualifiedly, that, in my own view, to do without text-books and reference-books, is utterly impracticable. I do not say that we could not spare nine hundred and ninety-nine out of every thousand of them. I

think we might, without loss. What I do understand these persons to teach is this;—that printed words are but black marks—only symbols; and a symbol has no significance till there is a familiarity with the thing symbolized. The elements of the thought expressed by words must at least be familiar before the words mean anything. Then only reading becomes an active intellectual process, gathering an idea here and a picture there—each word bringing its contribution toward making up a train of thought. But some one says, "Reading, with children, *must* be largely a mechanical exercise." You are wrong, sir. If you will put some thoughts into the child's mind and make him hungry for more mental food, you will be astonished to see how, as if by instinct, the child catches the symbol. By referring to your own experience, many of you know that the labor of learning to read is not so great when thought precedes symbols. What but a herculean task could one expect, if a child be put to learn page after page of dead forms, so as to distinguish each promptly and call it by its name, and not only this, but to attain the art of saying the names of forms *as if they meant* something, when actually they do not.

6. Again, object lessons supply *the elements from which science must be constructed.* Taking the ordinary definition of science, "knowledge reduced to order," it is plainly implied that there must be knowledge before there is science; for science is only "knowledge and experience systematized." An English writer upon this point says:

"A certain broad array of facts must pre-exist before scientific methods can be applied. This is illustrated by by the profound analogy that exists between the growth of scientific knowledge in an individual and in the world. Generation after generation of men passed away, and the world patiently accumulated experience and observation of facts; and then there sprung up an uncontrollable desire to ascertain the sequences of nature and to penetrate the deep-lying principles of natural philosophy, and the same desire in the individual is based on the same kind of experience."

If this be true, it follows the more scientific facts we can give a child before we put books into his hands, the better he is prepared to use them properly. These lessons draw aside vail after vail from before the child's face, and give him glimpses of how much there is still beyond for him to know, so he is constantly made desirous of knowledge; and the information contained in books, when it becomes accessible, is made digestible food which strengthens and causes growth.

Object lessons supplement books. No system of education in our country should overlook the fact that a large proportion

of our children never pursue a school course farther than the merest elements of reading, penmanship, and numbers. Two school reports which happen to lie near me, probably present a fair average of attendance. I gather from the first, an eastern city report, the fact that "the average number belonging" in the high school is seven per cent. that of the primary schools. The ratio of the number of pupils of the high to the intermediate schools is seventeen. That of the intermediate to the primary is forty. From another table, I find the average age of the children in the *upper grade* of the primary schools to be 9.3 years. If we have only forty per cent. of our children in the intermediate schools, it follows that sixty per cent. leave school at an average of not over nine years. Taking up the last annual report for the State of Ohio, which lies next, I find the average attendance in central or high schools two-tenths of one per cent. of the entire average attendance in the public schools. It is true these tables are only approximately correct, but they serve to impress the fact that the great burden of school work comes in the primary and lower intermediate grades. In the city of Cincinnati, for the twenty-five thousand pupils enrolled in the public schools, but two grammar schools, which correspond to the seventh and eighth years of the course, are required.

We stand appalled before such figues, when we realize that to us the educational interests of the land are committed. I am confidently of the opinion that the great question for our consideration is not, how shall we teach most in this short time given us, but how shall we most thoroughly inspire to self-help.

If we, as teachers of persons who are to become teachers, could but impress those who go out from us, with the idea, that until they have created an insatiable desire for knowledge, until by some appliance they have caused the minds of their pupils to send out feelers in every direction after mental food, but little has been accomplished, we should have performed inestimable service to the youth of the land. Let reading, writing, arithmetic and geography be taught, and then let a portion of the time be spent in teaching children how much there is to know, by setting as many doors ajar as possible into the various departments of knowledge, and exciting their curiosity to explore each. We do not make as much use of the curiosity of children as we might. You will pardon me if I again quote from Mr. Wilson, whose essay upon "Teaching Natural Science in Schools" I consider incomparably fine. He says:

"Curiosity is the one principle that makes self-education possible. It is a form of the love of knowledge. That it is often weak and unaccompanied with effort, I admit, but it ought to be guided, stimulated and strengthened. The guidance of curiosity is to lead a boy to observe more, to combine and reason. The stimulation of it is to show how much more there is still to be learned. The strengthening of it is to make it deep and lasting; to check the mere love of novelty, the idle discursiveness that asks questions, and forgets the answers, even if it waits for them, and to cause it to refuse information until the foundation is laid on which it can securely rest. Guidance often takes the form of repression. Little children should be curious. Curiosity is the ordinary form of mental activity in young minds, and it is foolish and unnatural to ignore it as we do. How much better and more intelligent would early training be if curiosity were looked on as a store of force, the possible love of knowledge in embryo in the boy's mind, which in its later transformations is so highly valued."

Object lessons skillfully prepared and properly given, are adapted to stimulate and discipline the curiosity and make it a *worker* in the family of mental powers, instead of an idle vagabond, living at the expense of the other members.

7. *Object lessons cultivate the judgment and understanding of pupils.* The chief difference in men is, perhaps, most concisely expressed in their different abilities quickly to grasp facts, correlate them, discover relations, and promptly come to correct conclusions. The best way to teach a child to do this for himself when out of school, is to set him at it in school. He should be led there to the apprehension of facts, and to compare and decide concerning them; his erroneous conclusions should be pointed out, and the cause of his error noted. He does not know he is studying the logic of his future practical life, nevertheless he is. Cautious and correct judgments would save men mountains of crushing care and make them better citizens, better business men, and happier and freer. There is no opportunity for this culture, if books alone are relied upon. If the child is borne in the arms of tender nurses over every difficulty; if what cost the world centuries of patient investigation, is told him in a breath, he gets none of the benefit arising from the investigation itself in which after all is the chief profit.

8. *Object lessons afford an opportunity for a unification of knowledges.* Our pupils often have a little knowledge in this direction and a little in that; a side wall is built up here and a corner wall there; a pillar planted firmly upon this base and a column set yonder; but the child does not remain in school long enough for his books to take him, if indeed they ever would, which I doubt, to a point where the walls are united, the roof added, and the temple so "enclosed round about" that it becomes at once his cheerful home and his impregnable fortress.

The object lessons afford an opportunity for bringing together the facts of the reading, the arithmetic, and the geography lessons, and so gathering all the feeble threads of thought, easily broken, and unbroken of little worth alone, into a strong intertwisted cord of ideas, each serving to fasten the other, and all strong by association. It is hardly practicable to do this work in any special lessons as it diverts from the point of the exercise, but it should be made a part of each day's order. Let the object lesson be made the systematizing, connecting and unifying occasions of school instruction.

I need not speak of the accession of real enjoyment which the lessons produce, both in school days and in future life, as this has been implied under each head of this discussion.

I have not yet referred to the value of object lessons to teachers themselves. This I regard as a consideration of no mean importance. The mass of lower grade teachers have no necessity for intellectual effort in the performance of their daily duties, and the consequence is not only no intellectual growth, but actual retrogression. Every teacher holding such a position should hail with real delight any necessity for investigation and study. The giving of object lessons makes such a necessity and brings an abundant reward for the effort in increased knowledge and a quickening of the intellect. And then the ability to talk extempore to a class in such a manner as to rivet their attention, is no mean accomplishment. The power so to control a school of fifty children as to have each one perfectly interested, perfectly free from uncomfortable restraint, ready to talk if there is anything to say, and to listen attentively to the teacher if she desire it, is an accomplishment to be coveted by every teacher. The tact necessary to lead to the apprehension of truth without telling it; to guide children without carrying them; to use all their own knowledge in leading them to the unknown beyond them—this is the perfection of the teaching art. Toward all this the giving of object lessons pushes the teacher. If she does not attain perfection, she is driven by a constant impulse in that direction. Necessity is the goad of progress to us as to others, for we are subject to all the human infirmities, indolence not excepted.

III. Having spoken of the value of object lessons, we now come to consider briefly their place in a course of study.

If the former part of this discussion is accepted, the latter is largely determined. Wherever observation needs to be culti-

vated, wherever clearness, accuracy and fluency of expression is not already perfect; wherever variety is required to give sharpness and vigor to mental activity; wherever there is need for making children acquainted with some of the facts of science before introducing them to the science as such; wherever books lack in completeness or clearness; wherever there need be a process of soldering into one the various elements of knowledge, there these object lessons may with profit be given. In the primary schools I regard them as indispensable. The perceptions are the basis upon which the superstructure of education must be built. The conceptive faculty is still weak, and has but little material upon which to exercise itself. The reasoning faculty is not yet developed. Abstractions are now impossibilities. The vocabulary is still limited and simple.

A person having accumulated large wealth can give up the business by which his means were procured, and allow his money to work for him. "Money gets money." So a large stock of ideas having been obtained, the sensible objects from which they were gotten, may be put aside, and their possessor may live and grow in his world of ideas. But this capital of knowledge must first be obtained. The primary school is the place where this work is begun. Here *things* must precede *thoughts.*

Object lessons are valuable in the intermediate schools, as children are constantly leaving them to whom both the culture secured and the information imparted would be of a greater than any money value, both in suggesting means of livelihood and in discovering sources of enjoyment.

The important principles of natural philosophy, the leading facts of astronomy and chemistry, the more important and practical problems of geometry, might be so presented in the use of objects as to add immensely to a boy's stock of ideas, whose circumstances forbid his remaining in school to come to these things in their regular order. In the high schools where pupils have more knowledge, and need to depend somewhat less on observation, these lessons may give place to illustration and explanation. But even here the skillful teacher could find abundant use for an occasional lesson of this sort.

IV. With your permission, I will now refer to some of the objections urged against object lessons and then relieve you.

1. "Lack of time." "If we give object lessons, we must neglect reading and spelling. Our classes will fall below the standard, and our committees and patrons charge us with incom-

petency." Let me assure every one who has any misgivings at this point, that you can teach more of everything and better with object lessons than without them. Let them be the outgrowth of and consonant with your regular work, and you will find an enthusiasm warming all into new life. The mind once awake is quickened for all work.

2. "Such lessons make hard work for teachers." Yes, any earnest teaching is hard work. Especially so is primary teaching, where the teacher by force of her own personal influence must control the movements of fifty little minds, which have not yet learned their wings so that they can make direct lines of thought, but dart from the track here, and become entangled there, the least breeze of circumstance turning them entirely from their course. But which is harder, the making of children happy, a whole session, by a half-hour of nice conversation with them, encouraging them to talk as freely to you as they would do at home to their mothers, or the scolding and fretting necessary to secure order from weary, nervous children, or to force an idea through the inelastic brain tissue of children two-thirds asleep and one-third willfully stupid? Every earnest teacher prefers to work to a purpose. Teachers worthy their calling need only to be convinced of the better way cheerfully to attempt at least to walk therein.

3. "Object lessons are mechanical." There is no school exercise that can not be made mechanical in the hands of the unskillful. Unfortunately there are some persons in the teacher's profession, who have little originality or independence of thought. This is partly owing to bad training and partly to lack of training. What has there been in the primary teacher's work to develop originality or genius of any sort? Before the objection amounts to anything as against object lessons themselves, it will be necessary to show that they induce mechanical teaching. That they must necessarily be given mechanically, nobody will for a moment claim. There is every thing in them calculated to foster a spirit of inquiry and originality, to lead out of mere forms or to inspirit them.

4. "They lead out a few bright scholars, while the slow ones are left constantly farther and farther in the rear." I confess this is more than a mere show of objection. There is danger that even the earnest and faithful teacher deceive herself as to the real interest among her pupils, by allowing a few forward children to do the work of the entire class. Then, it is not always

agreeable to know the worst. It is gratifying to have a lesson move off smoothly, especially if we have company upon whom we are desirous of making a good impression. And as before remarked, teachers, in common with others, have their indolent and weary days, their headachy and dyspeptic days. All these are "occasions of offense" in this respect. But does the difficulty arise from the nature of the lesson or from the accidental circumstances of the teacher? That a one-armed soldier can not handle a musket, or one ill of camp fever endure a march, is no evidence that muskets and marches are not necessary in the conduct of a campaign. All soldiers are not one-armed or ill. Let those who *can* do this work, do it, since it needs to be done. All teachers are not indolent or dyspeptic. Determined ones would not fail at this point. None need do so. Every child in every lesson should have something to do, and that independently. This must be especially cared for in regard to the poor, weak ones, and the dull ones of the school. These are the lambs which the teacher must continually bear in her arms, and carry upon her heart. If these grow under her care, she need not fear for the stronger ones. That care which secures growth to the weakest and slowest, will certainly afford culture to the hearty and strong.

5. "The instruction is not systematic." Is there anything in the nature of the lessons themselves that prevents their being given according to system? Not at all. They should be given according to some well defined plan. If any one attempting to give them, has failed to do this, her failure was on account of incompetency, for which the work she undertook is in no way responsible.

6. "Teachers are incompetent." This is really a summary of all the preceding objections. What it means is, that our work is trying to exalt us, the workers, to its own dignity. Our inertia makes us move slowly, but we shall rise in time to the stature of our profession.

By these objections the necessity for special preparation for the teacher's work is indirectly affirmed. That normal schools have not invariably succeeded in making skillful givers of object lessons, is undoubtedly true. The schools may be at fault, and may not. If normal schools are not doing all they should do with the means at command, we must make them more effective. This we will certainly do as soon as we discover failures and their causes. If they are doing all that can be done, and still fail to send out teachers competent to the discharge of a teacher's

duties, the standard of graduation, possibly of admission, must be raised. Not even normal schools, as you all know very well, can make teachers out of all the material presented to them. It would require more than four years of greatly *super*human tuition to do it. While I am scrupulously of the opinion that a normal school should withhold its honors from the evidently incapable, I am quite convinced that it is as often difficult to decide how much teaching ability normal pupils will develop when thrown upon their own resources. Of this I have no doubt: any teacher, whether a normal graduate or not, who has a thorough knowledge of the philosophy of mind and the principles of education, teaching tact and earnestness in her work, can learn to give object lessons successfully.

If I have succeeded in what I have attempted, I have,

First, made clear to you what I understand by an object lesson. (1) Not something read or recited by the teacher to her pupils; (2) not a lecture by the teacher; (3) not something identical with "objective" or "illustrative" teaching nor (4) with "oral instruction." Such a lesson does demand the presence of an object to be studied, and the use of the children's senses. It is conversational, and under the guidance of the teacher.

Second, I have said that the value of object lessons consists in that they are (1) a means of the culture of the observation; (2) they cultivate ease and exactness of expression; (3) they lead into new fields of inquiry, and so discover special aptitudes; (4) they afford variety, and so bring rest; (5) they prepare for and supplement books; (6) they cultivate the judgment; and (7) they afford an opportunity for the unification of a child's knowledges. The measure of object lessons as an educational force having been decided, their place in an educational system is determined.

Third, I have concluded that they are (1) indispensable in the primary and lower intermediate schools; (2) exceedingly valuable in the upper intermediate schools; and (3) not indispensable in the high school, but an instrument of great value in the hands of a skillful teacher; and

Fourth, I have tried to answer some of the most frequent objections to these lessons. In concluding, let me say, I congratulate myself in having a part with a class of the world's workers who believe they can not afford to be dogmatic; to whom *truth* is of incalculably more value, than any opinions they may hold as the result of the circumstances into which they may have been

thrown. I believe myself to be one with you in this respect. When the disciple of Truth is willing to be even crucified, in all the opinions he holds dear, those in which he most glories, even then, and then only, need he certainly hope to be raised by her power in the likeness of her own image.

THE OBJECT OF ARITHMETICAL INSTRUCTION.

BY J. C. GREENOUGH.*

The first thing to be settled by the teacher, in any department of instruction, is the object to be secured by that instruction. The chief object of the study of arithmetic is the development of the reasoning faculties of the pupil. A secondary object is to fit the pupil for the transaction of that business in which a knowledge of the processes of arithmetic are required. If the teacher considers the last named the more important object, he will strive to form traders rather than men, and may be satisfied to have his pupils memorize rules and proceed to their application, without any clear understanding of the principles upon which those rules are founded. But if the teacher strive to secure the mental development of his pupils, and considers arithmetic chiefly valuable as a means to this end, he will adapt his teaching to the mental wants of his pupils.

The fault of too much of our teaching is, that it endeavors to prepare for certain specific applications of knowledge rather than to secure intellectual and moral culture. Any narrow view of his work must tend to dwarf the mind of the teacher, and to render the results of his teaching meagre. Having in mind what is to be accomplished, the teacher will readily find how to proceed in the study of arithmetic. The mental condition of the pupils will furnish a guide.

Since our first knowledge of numbers is occasioned by means of material objects, the pupil should receive his first lessons by means of objects. Numeral frames are convenient, but many teachers are unsupplied with these, and pebbles, blocks, or squares of card paper will do almost as well. In learning to name numbers from one to twenty, objects should be used by the pupil, and analyzed before the name is given.

* Normal School, Westfield, Mass.

The teacher having called the attention of the pupil to one thing and to a collection of things, and having in this way taught the meaning of the expressions, "a unit" and "a number", is prepared to teach the names of the numbers, two, three, etc. Let us notice minutely how this is to be done. We will suppose the pupil has had a lesson upon two and three, and is ready to advance. To save space, I will abridge the statements of what the teacher and of what the pupils do and say, during the time of teaching. Both teacher and pupils should be in position to note upon the blackboard.

Teacher presents four things. *Pupils.* "A number."

Teacher separates into one and three. *P.* "The number is made up of one with three."

Teacher pronounces, spells, and writes "four." Pupils do the same.

T. What is four? *P.* "Four is a number made up of one and three."

Teacher against the word "four" writes the figure 4. Pupils do the same.

Teacher writes $\frac{4}{1+3}$. Pupils do the same.

Teacher gives oral questions, using or referring to familiar objects to give interest to the questions, until one and three will ever after suggest four, and *vice versa*.

Teacher then separates the four objects into two and two; leads the pupils to state the result of the analysis, and to note as before. By questions and answers the result of this analysis is then fixed.

$$\begin{array}{r} 4 \\ \hline 1+3 \\ 2+2 \end{array}$$

Teacher then separates the four objects into three and one, and proceeds as before. The mode of teaching for every number from one to twenty inclusive, would be similar.

The order indicated is this: A number of objects presented as a whole; analysis, oral name written, the figure or figures expressing the number named; analysis and synthesis of the number, mode expressed and fixed in mind by the pupil.

In these elementary exercises the teacher should be careful to have the pupil distinguish between numbers and the mere expressions of numbers. Even some of our bookmakers fail to do this when they give us rules directing us to "add figures." In

order to fix in mind the results of the teaching, many review exercises will be needed, both oral and written. These should be diverse and varied in form that the interest of the pupil may be maintained.

At another time I may indicate some of the different modes to be pursued by the pupil both in learning and in reciting.

PRIMARY READING.

BY JOHN D. PHILBRICK.*

There is, I believe, no branch taught in the Boston schools in which the progress during two or three years past has been more satisfactory on the whole than reading. This is true of all the classes from the sixth where the first step has to be taken, up to the first where the pupils receive the finishing touch, preparatory to admission to the Grammar School. The Edgeworths, in their admirable Essay on Practical Education, which was written more than half a century ago, say: "As it is usually managed, it is a dreadful task indeed to learn, and if possible a more dreadful task to teach to read. With the help of counters and coaxing, and gingerbread, or by dint of reiterated pain and terror, the names of the four and twenty letters of the alphabet are, perhaps, in the course of some weeks, firmly fixed in the pupil's memory. So much the worse; all these names will disturb him, if he have common sense, and at every step must stop his progress." They then describe a method of teaching the first steps of reading, by which they think that "nine-tenths of the labor and disgust of learning to read may be saved, and that instead of frowns and tears, the usual harbingers of learning, cheerfulness and smiles may initiate willing pupils in the most difficult of all human attainments."

The method which they recommended is substantially the same as that now practised by most of our primary teachers. It is what we call the *phonic method.* It consists in teaching the pronunciation of words by means of the sounds of the individual letters and of certain combinations of two or more letters. The *phonic print*, invented by Dr. Leigh, is an ingenious contrivance

* Superintendent of the Public Schools of Boston, Mass.

for facilitating the teaching of this method. Leigh's phonic charts and readers have been used in the schools of several districts with marked success. In one school I found extraordinary results produced by a skillful application of the phonic method. I visited the school after it had been under instruction four months it contained about sixty pupils, whose ages ranged from five to six years; the whole number did not begin together; they were dropping in during the period of four months. I examined about forty-four of the class, embracing those who had been longest in school. By the programme they were only required to read to the thirtieth page in the First Reader in six months, but so rapid had been their progress, that in four months they could read the *whole book with facility*, and they read too with a proper modulation of voice. They could spell remarkably well both by letter and by sound. The teacher had prepared them for examination in spelling only to the thirtieth page, but I found that they could spell beyond that limit about as well as they did within it. But the most surprising thing these children did, was to print a short sentence on their slates from dictation.

This is the school referred to in my last report, from which I had received several compositions, with an anonymous note from the teacher. It is in East Boston and is taught by Miss Elizabeth A. Turner, a graduate of our Training School. She made much use of the blackboard in teaching, and carried out the phonic system very thoroughly, using a system of marks to indicate the sounds of the letters, invented by herself. In beginning with a new class in March, however, she adopted Dr. Leigh's books and charts, as a means of saving some labor. I mention the results of this experiment, not with the intention of advising other teachers to try to advance pupils so fast as to print sentences from dictation, and even write little compositions during the first four months of their schooling, but merely to show what results can be reached by first-rate skill. This teacher does not profess to have any special taste for teaching little children, but finding herself in the lowest grade of a primary school, she bravely undertook to see what she could do in such a class. And she proved beyond a doubt, that it is not necessarily a "dreadful task," either, "to learn or to teach to read"; for the results I have described were not produced by the help of "counters," or "coaxing," or "gingerbread," or "by dint of reiterated pain and terror." Good teaching and management made the children willing and cheerful and smiling, and very successful. I do not mean

by presenting this case to be understood as intimating that every teacher ought to be expected to come up to the same standard. In fact, I am inclined to think that to write sentences from dictation is quite enough, if not too much to require even of the first class. The programme certainly does not require it, and, therefore, neither committee man nor master has the right to *demand* it. But if a teacher can accomplish it without *overworking* her pupils, and chooses to do it, of course no one ought to object. But I refer to this marked example of success as an illustration of what conscientious and intelligent teaching *can do*, and to show that the capacity of the human mind to learn is not to be measured by that of unskillful teachers to teach.—*Semi-Annual Report.*

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

No. II. *Writing.*

BY PROF. WM. F. PHELPS.*

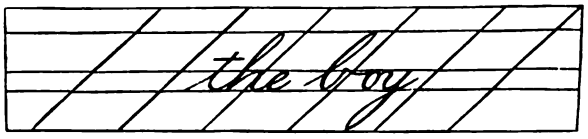
In a preceding paper an attempt was made to suggest a rational plan for teaching reading and spelling to the primary classes of our district schools. A very common defect in the usual methods of primary instruction in the country schools, is the *omission to connect other exercises with those heretofore described.* The children are confined almost exclusively to two branches, reading and spelling, while these branches are taught in a most barren and uninteresting style. It should never be forgotten that a child has eyes and hands as well as ears and a tongue. Hence he should be taught *to see* and *to do*, as well as to hear and repeat. It may be laid down as a safe maxim, that the primary teacher who succeeds best in giving pleasant and profitable employment to the eyes and hands of her pupils, approximates nearest to the standard of perfection in her noble art. In accordance with this principle, *writing should always be associated not only with reading, but with every other lesson given in a primary school.* Hence lessons in writing should be among the first to be taught, and they should be given daily. The slate and pencil should be exclusively used.

The subjoined plan of teaching has been employed with suc-

* Principal State Normal School, Winona, Minn.

cess. I am indebted for it, as well as for all the sketches of these primary lessons, to Miss Sara J. Timanus, of the Minnesota First State Normal School.

The slate should be ruled after the accompanying model, with a pointed steel:



The single lines indicate the height of the loop letters, the double lines the size of the small letters, and the oblique lines the slant of the letters; as, for example, the words, "the boy", as in the above model. The children should be taught to write in a much coarser hand than they will finally assume. The blackboard should be ruled to correspond with the slates, so that the alphabet properly written may always be before the eyes of the children. The first day the pupils come to school, begin to teach them correct positions of body and of holding the pencil, and insist that these positions shall be carefully maintained. Teach them also the difference between the large spaces and the small spaces on the slates. Require them to make such simple copies as *I, O.* Let these two principles gradually lead up to the formation of the letters a, d, g, t, v, n, m, x, etc.

After the children have been in school three weeks, they may be encouraged to copy the alphabet which, in the mean time, has been carefully written on the blackboard. These exercises may be written without regard to the *names* of the letters. The pupils may also be required to *copy the written forms of the words which occur in their short reading lessons.* In this way the reading and writing lessons are associated, and the labor of learning to read is greatly abbreviated. The children are thus learning to read the written as well as the printed words.

At the end of three months, pupils who have never before attended school should be able to write all the script letter, the words of their reading lessons, and their own names. For the purpose of teaching them to write their individual names, prepare slips of paper three inches long, one inch wide, and rule them to correspond with the slates, then write the names on them plainly with pen and ink, and paste them on the inside of the covers of their reading books.

By these simple means, and with a very little effort on the part of the teacher, children from six to ten years of age may become legible writers in a single term; and, what is of great importance besides, this plan provides entertaining and useful occupation for the little ones, preventing disorder and mischief, and leaving the teacher comparatively free to attend to the more advanced classes of the school. The teacher should take pains to encourage the children by examining and commending their work as it stands on the slates. Whenever visitors appear at the school, let the pupils, or those who have done well, pass their slates among them and receive such encouragement as a kind word will afford.

The next paper will present a plan for a course of lessons in number suited to the same grade of pupils.

A VISION OF SCIENCE.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

Beneath the stars, upon a summer night,
I saw a vision fairer than the stars:
A shape descended from the middle sky,
In vesture pure of light ineffable,
With wings that made a music in the air,
And crown whose glorious spangles shone so far
They lit the darkness of remotest space.
What shape art thou, I cried, and stood apart,
In fearful wonder and admiring awe.
Fear not; the shining visitant replied,—
I bear to men cause not of fear but joy,
I am the daughter of eternal God,
And Science is my name. My Father's works
'T is mine to render plain to human thought.
I war with darkness and I fight with lies;
I free the slave that Ignorance enthralls;
I ferret hoar Delusion from his cave;
I point the way to truth wherever hid
In earth, in ocean, or in ether far,
In force, in matter, in phenomena,—
No thing to me is sacred but the truth.
I teach the nature of the universe,
Its mighty oneness in diversity,
Its aspects changing under changeless law

Behold the trackless heavens over us,
And all the constellated glory there;—
I name and measure yonder blazing orbs,
And all the distances that lie between
I tell in inches. Look upon the sea,
I know its depths and its inhabitants,
I know what e'er leviathan it holds,
I know the coming of the winds and tides,
I lay an iron nerve beneath all storms,
And men's thoughts with the lightning linking hands,
Run playful o'er the bottom of the deep,
And make a jest of distance and of time.
My bright eyes penetrate the solid earth,
And see the gold and silver in the rocks,
And gleaming crystals of each precious stone.
I see the ores more rich than gold or gems,
And say to man, Delve there; and he who delves
Digs wealth and power from the darkling mine.
I know the plants,—the stately forest trees,
The floral multitudes that populate
The plain, the vale, the lonely mountain side,
The cultured garden, and the trackless wild.
Each tells me secrets. Bird, beast, and fish,
Reptile and insect, tiny diatome
Unseen save 'neath the microscopic lens,
I know them all; and every living thing
I cause to yield me service. Not alone
Are living things subservient to my will,—
I rule the elements and tax them all;
The nimble air, the water, and the fire,
The stubborn earth, and e'en the lordly sun,
These do my bidding as they needs must do,
Because I understand them and control.
I know the workings in the misty cloud,
In what alembic nature fashions rain,
And how she makes the magic snow and frost,
And how she paints the still receding bow
That decks the rainy archway of the sky,
Or crowns the spray of grand Niagara;
And how she sets the frigid north aflame
With the auroral splendor that illumes
The solemn silence of the six months' night.
I enter and with reverence explore
The royal palace of the human soul,
The many-chambered tenement of life,
Yea, more,—the complex structure of the mind,
The laws of thoughts and passions, I reveal,

The mystery of memory and dream.
The course of time I traverse not alone;—
Art is my younger sister; her I lead
And show the deep foundations of the truth
Her hand essays to symbolize for man.
Gray-headed History attends my steps,
And rapt Romance, and clear-eyed Poesie,
Philosophy with stately mien and brow,
And all the dearest friends of human good.
Deaf Superstition, blind Credulity
Find me a foe implacable and dread,
But rational Religion finds me aye
A firm supporter and a bold ally.
Heed not crazed voices that disparage me;
I am the daughter of eternal God,
And well-beloved of my Father. He
Hath sent me forth not as the foe of Faith:
I but prepare the world for larger faith;
The doubt I plant stakes up the vine belief,
And Christ sits firmer on his kingdom's throne
Because of Science. Thus the visitant:
Then spreading pearly pinions on the night,
She soar'd where stars are thickest, and was lost
In self resembling light.

CLEANLINESS.

Good order, which is absolutely necessary to successful teaching, can not well be secured without neatness in person and dress. I never saw a slovenly teacher whose pupils did not, in a great measure, follow her example; and I never saw an untidy school which was not disorderly. I once taught a term in a country school where among my pupils were two little girls. They wore the same dresses of dark print every day during the term, with a little frill of lace at the throat, and white aprons of the cheapest cotton goods. Their dresses and aprons always looked as though they were just from the drawer, always clean and whole. Those little unassuming girls were a great help to me in that school. Many teachers think that the matter of cleanliness is too delicate a subject for a teacher to touch upon. It is our duty, nevertheless, to insist upon it. The material of a pupil's dress may be cheap and plain, and yet it may be kept scrupulously clean. Neatness and order are two virtues deserving attention in every school. MRS. J. C. J.

Editorial Department.

—— The next ten years will largely determine the scope and character of American education for a century. The past decade has initiated important changes, and all is agitation and trial. Extreme views are clashing, and radicalism and conservatism are in conflict at every point. Old methods are fearlessly and sweepingly condemned, and new systems are zealously and unqualifiedly commended. Hobbysts are continually "flying the track", and recklessly rushing into untried ways. Meanwhile the schools are testing the new methods and experience is rendering a verdict. It is plain that such times as these call the educational journalist to a higher service than the partisan advocacy of extreme and narrow views, or the zealous defense of "things as they were." The future of American education demands that the schools not only prove all things, but *that they hold fast what is good;* and, to this end, what is valuable in old methods should be wisely discerned and commended, and the defects and abuses of the new as well as the old exposed. True reform in education is as much retarded by an indiscriminate praise of novelties as by a blind adhesion to old paths. The great mission of an educational journal is to expose error and advocate truth, whether found in old or new systems.

—— One of the most hopeful features of educational progress is the increased attention given to the higher education of women. It is but a few years since girls were admitted to our public high schools, and fewer since they were permitted to pursue therein as extensive a course of study as boys. We had the honor of teaching the girls who first completed the full course of mathematics in the Cleveland High School. They did their work so thoroughly that no one has since thought of putting up a bar at "quadratic equations." What is true in Cleveland is true in nearly all our cities and towns. At least to the point reached by the classes in our high schools and seminaries, girls have demonstrated their intellectual ability to compete successfully with boys, and in Ohio there are now more girls than boys pursuing higher courses of study. This fact means more than the elevation of women. It will appear as a blessing in the homes of the next generation, and hence will become the promoter of civilization and human progress. "I am profoundly convinced," says Mill, "that moral and intellectual progress of the male sex runs a great risk of stopping, if not of receding, as long as that of the women remains behind, and that, not only because nothing can replace the mother for the education of children, but also because the influence upon man himself of the character and the ideas of the companion of his life can not be insignificant: woman must either push him forward or hold him back." This remark applies with great force to the condition of things in England. There is no civilized country where the provision for the higher education of women is more meager

and discreditable. But England is awakening to the importance of extending to both sexes equal educational advantages. Even Parliament has been attentive to earnest and able pleas for the better education of British mothers as well as British artisans.

—— AN English paper complains of the practice of requiring pupils to prepare school lessons at home, as a serious and unnecessary interference with the comfort of the fireside. It claims that a child's evenings should be given to relaxation and family pleasures, and that these should not be trenched upon by school tasks. The practice of assigning home lessons is also condemned by many eminent physicians as prejudical to health. This subject has also received the attention of the school authorities in many of our cities, and regulations to guard against the overtaxing of pupils have been enacted. In Boston teachers are forbidden to assign lessons requiring home study to pupils in the primary schools and to girls in the grammar schools, and not more than one hour's home study can be daily required of the boys in the grammar schools and in the three lower classes in the high schools. It is also a peremptory rule that pupils shall not be required to study at recess. It is true that these rules are not always observed, but they show a praiseworthy effort to check what is a recognized evil. The recitations and exercises of the pupils in our upper schools consume so great a portion of the regular school hours that little time is left for study. The time spent by grammar and high school pupils in school in the preparation of lessons, does not exceed, on an average, two hours a day. Of course, the necessary amount of study can not be compassed in this brief time, and, as a result, one or more lessons are prepared out of school; and this leads to excess in study. We often hear of frail girls studying until ten and eleven o'clock at night to meet school requirements, and we more often wonder that sensible parents permit it.

—— A TEACHER wishes to know whose duty it is to determine the branches of study to be pursued by the pupils in a public school. In all well-regulated graded schools, the board of education prescribes a general course of study for the several classes, but the duty of classifying the pupils is left to the teacher or superintendent, or both. The classification of the several pupils determines their respective studies. But we suppose that the inquiry refers to ungraded country schools, where, as a general rule, no course of study is prescribed by the board, and where no regulation authorizes the teacher to determine the studies of pupils. In such cases the authority to regulate the pupil's studies is still vested in the teacher, subject, of course, to the authority of the board. No parent has the right to dictate the studies, text-books, and classes of his child in a public school. This would put an end to all system and classification, and destroy needed efficiency,—as a wide and sad experience shows. The pupils in many of our country schools are studying only what they are willing or wish to study. The most the teachers do in the matter, is to give advice. One boy spends all the time which he does not waste, in writing and ciphering; another adds reading and spelling. The result is a great loss of opportunity on the

part of the pupil and a serious crippling of the teacher's best efforts. The school is broken into fragments of classes, and disorder springs from idleness. The teachers of our country schools should have a regulation of the board behind them, and their authority should be as undoubted as that of teachers in graded schools. Parents feeling aggrieved should have the right of appeal to the school officers. The great need of these schools is a recognized, authoritative *head*.

—— We recently listened to a discussion on moral culture in schools, in which a just distinction was made between instruction and influence. Several of the speakers clearly recognized the fact that moral character in the teacher is the essential condition of all moral training. This view can not be too strongly impressed upon the teachers and guardians of our schools. There is no moral influence so effective and fruitful as that which emanates secretly and silently from the teacher's inner life and character. If devotion to truth, to duty, and to God does not glow within his heart, his words will avail but little. On the contrary, truth, translated into human experience, wins not only intellectual assent, but it purifies the heart. Noble sentiments dwelling regally in a teacher's life are self-articulate. But this fact does not lessen the value of direct and positive moral instruction in our schools; and this remark touches the weak point in the discussion above referred to. It seemed to be assumed that if the teacher's personal influence and example were positively moral, there was no need of moral precepts. From one or two of the speeches the inference was easy, that moral instruction was antagonistic to or, at least, in the way of moral influence. The fact was overlooked that right moral instruction quickens and increases the teacher's moral influence; that a moral life is strongest when moral truth stands beside it. What our schools need in moral training is both precept and example; both instruction and influence; both the word and the spirit. School instruction needs to be strengthened and vitalized at every point of contact with the pupil's moral life and character. The gravest duty which now confronts the teachers of this country, is the right moral training of American youth.

—— Miss Lathrop's excellent paper on the *Value and Place of Object Lessons*, will be read with interest by all who have devoted any attention to this subject. It very clearly presents the nature and scope of such lessons by sharply discriminating between them and illustrative lessons and oral instruction. This just distinction corrects much loose thinking, and, at the same time, admirably prepares the way for an exhaustive statement of the value of such instruction. Respecting the place of object lessons in a course of study, the paper is somewhat general, but the fact is made clear that they constitute but a limited part of primary instruction. Their three fold primary function is (1) to train the observing faculties; (2) to develop primary ideas of the qualities and relations of objects; and (3) to afford a basis for language culture. This view affords room in primary instruction for the exercise of the child's imagination, reason, faith, and conscience, and it allows a complete

training of its entire nature. Much of even a child's knowledge must be imparted through the medium of language, and faith in the wisdom of parent and teacher is as necessary and important as sharp perception! The dogma that nothing is to be taught a child, which is not based on his own observations or deduced by his own mental processes, rules out the most valuable lessons of childhood. True primary instruction runs in no narrow groove. It is as manifold as the powers of the soul, and as broad as child life and duty.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

I.—THE AMERICAN NORMAL ASSOCIATION.

The American Normal Association met in the hall of the Central High School, Cleveland, Ohio, on Monday morning, August 14th, with an unusually large attendance. The President, Prof. John Ogden, of Nashville, Tenn., delivered an able address on the *Condition and Wants of Normal Schools.* As evidence of the utility of normal schools, he cited the fact that those States and countries that have made the most liberal provision for normal training, have the best public schools; and, as evidence of the popularity of these schools, he alluded to the assumption of the name by institutions which have no just title to it. He urged that normal schools must be placed upon an elevated, rational and substantial basis, and that they must do the work of first-class professional schools. They must produce skillful teachers—teachers of broad thought, and liberal culture—not hobbyists, nor copyists, nor idealists, but large-hearted, clear-headed, strong-handed teachers; and they must produce such teachers in greater numbers than other institutions. To this end, normal schools should not be subordinated to any other class of institutions. The management of normal departments requires the greatest judgment, both in theory and practice, and they should only be tolerated as a present necessity. They can never fill the place of the normal school proper, which should be thoroughly appointed, well-manned, and independent. Its objects and aims should be so high, and its course of training and practice so complete as to meet the increasing public demand for teaching ability of a high order and the claims of a high professional standard. In its highest departments the normal school should be purely professional. Its mission is in the direct line of professional training, and to other institutions must largely be left the work of imparting a knowledge of the branches of study. Its course of study and training should be arranged with the strictest reference to its application in the work of teaching. The normal school should be endowed by the State as a means of providing trained teachers for all her schools, and to it should be attached a model-school—a complete school of observation, study and practice, and a model in all its appointments. The address urged the adoption by the Association of a "course of purely professional study and practice" for the use of the normal schools of the country, and the compilation of a text-book containing a digest of the leading and well-established facts and principles of education, carefully and methodically arranged, for the guidance of the student of education and

didactics. It was suggested that this work might be accomplished by a committee or "Educational Council," composed of the leading educators of the country.

A valuable report on the *Course of Study for Normal Schools* was next presented by Prof. Wm. F. Phelps, Principal of the State Normal School, Winona, Minnesota. He alluded to the low condition of the elementary schools throughout the country, as evinced in the large number of applicants for cadetships, who fail to pass examinations even in the primary branches. What is needed to remedy this state of things, is the proper training of teachers, not so much for the higher departments as for the lower schools, for defects in primary instruction are fatal to success. The report closed with a course of study for normal schools.

The subject was discussed by Hon. B. G. Northrop of Connecticut, L. R. Thompson of West Virginia, Hon. B. C. Hobbs of Indiana, S. H. White of Illinois, W. E. Crosby of Iowa, Dr. Daniel Read of Missouri, C. C. Rounds of Maine, Oliver Arey of Wisconsin, W. E. Sheldon of Massachusetts, and Mrs. A. J. Rickoff of Ohio. We had not the pleasure of listening to this discussion, but we are informed that it took a wide range, and disclosed quite a difference of opinion. The general drift seemed to favor two courses of normal training, an elementary and a more advanced, and that the former should have direct reference to the wants of primary schools. It was also suggested that two classes of normal schools are needed.

This was followed by a paper by S. H. White, Principal of the City Normal School, Peoria, Illinois, on "*The Providing of the Mass of Teachers with Some Means for Professional Culture.*" The report presented the facts that about forty per cent. of the teachers of the United States commence the work of teaching annually; that the whole number of pupils attending State Normal Schools equals only *three* per cent. of the whole number of teachers, and that there is about an equal number of pupils receiving special normal instruction in other institutions. It urged that State Normal Schools, as at present organized, can not, by reason of their expense, be established in sufficient numbers to supply the want for teachers, and, if they could be so provided, they are not what are needed for the mass of teachers, because of their too extensive course of study. The system of normal schools should be graded, the great number of them having a course embracing only the studies taught in the common schools, with methods of teaching the same, and instruction in school management. There should be a few schools of a higher grade for more extensive professional instruction, and to prepare teachers for positions in higher schools. Training-schools should be established in connection with the school systems of large towns and cities, and comprehensive measures should be adopted for holding efficient institutes throughout the whole country.

An interesting discussion followed, which was participated in by E. C. Delano, Chicago; B. C. Hobbs, Indianapolis; Z. Richards, Washington; E. A. Sheldon, Oswego; Miss Edine T. Howard, New York; S. G. Williams, Cleveland; and W. F. Phelps, Winona, Minn. Those who spoke to the question under consideration, endorsed substantially the views of the report. It was agreed that different grades of normal instruction are needed and that there should be a

class of normal schools between the teachers' institute and the State Normal School. The establishment of county normal schools in Illinois was regarded a step in the right direction. Prof. Sheldon referred to the several courses of study and training adopted in the Oswego Normal School as meeting the wants of all classes of teachers in both city and country.

The papers of Messrs. Phelps and White were referred to a committee of eighteen, with instructions to consider certain topics in each, and report to the Association.

A large audience assembled in the evening to hear an address by Hon. J. L. Pickard, Superintendent of Public Schools, Chicago, Ill., on "*The Human Body a Subject of Study for the Teacher.*" The importance of good health to the teacher was strongly presented. A good physical presence exerts a powerful influence, and the posture and movements of the body are real educational forces. The clear utterance which physical vigor gives, imparts weight to words of wisdom and moral precepts. The ease with which a healthy teacher works, is of incalculable value. Ill health is the mother of petulance, and bad digestion furnishes many occasions for the use of the birch. These and other considerations make the understanding of his physical nature and a compliance with its laws, an imperative duty on the part of the teacher. The speaker's next plea was for the little ones whose physical needs should be the first great care of the teacher. Health of bodily powers is not only the condition of successful physical labor, but also of the highest mental attainments. To all intellectual progress the body hangs as a clog, or acts as a helper. The teacher must be able to direct the physical activities of children, and this can never be wisely done by one who does not understand their nature, their condition, and their needs. The popular excesses in physical training, as in rowing, base ball, etc., were noticed and condemned. It was urged to be the duty of teachers to break up bad habits and check vicious practices and indulgences. Future generations will rise up and call them blessed who make the possibility of sound health and its attendant comforts a certainty.

At the opening of the session on Tuesday morning, a committee was appointed to wait on President Grant then in the city, and invite him to visit the Association. The President called at the lower front hall of the building, where he was met by the members, who were personally introduced by Gen. Eaton, National Commissioner of Education.

Miss Delia A. Lathrop, Principal of the Cincinnati Normal School, read an able paper on the "*Value and Place of Object Lessons in a Course of Study.*" It is published in this number.

Prof. J. W. Dickinson, Principal of the State Normal School, Westfield, Mass., read a scholarly paper on "*The Application of Mental Science to Teaching.*" It was a thorough analysis of the mental powers, with a concise statement of the laws of their growth, and the manner in which these facts should be applied in teaching—the whole being a clear exposition of the principles underlying the author's system of normal teaching and training.

Each of these papers was followed by a discussion in which the philosophy of object teaching was specially considered. The interest centered in the question, To what extent is the child's knowledge gained by observation? All

agreed that observation alone furnishes ideas of the qualities and relations of material objects, and that the development of these primary ideas is the function of object teaching. It was held by some that much of the child's knowledge of men and things, of right and duty, could be communicated through the means of language. The general drift of the discussion, omitting some loose and irrelevant talking, was to the conclusion that observation has a limited but important place in primary instruction. Among the speakers were Hon. W. D. Henkle, Ohio; E. A. Sheldon, New York; Rev. J. W. Turner, Massachusetts; E. E. White, Ohio; S. A. Ellis, New York; W. E. Crosby, Iowa; Hon. B. C. Hobbs, Indiana; Dr. N. E. Cobleigh, Tennessee; J. H. Hoose, New York; Dr. O. N. Hartshorn, Prof. J. M. Ellis, and C. W. Haywood, Ohio; and Z. Richards, Washington.

Prof. Moses T. Brown, of Massachusetts, gave a brief address on "*Dickens as a Reader*," and as an illustration of his style, read an extract from "Dombey and Son," eliciting hearty applause.

At the evening session the report of the committee on a Course of Study for Normal Schools was adopted, and a paper on the "*Treatment of Dunces*," by Miss M. F. Jackson, Philadelphia, was read by Miss Howard, of New York. This was followed by brief addresses by Dr. Reed of Missouri, Mrs. Mary Howe Smith of New York, W. E. Sheldon of Massachusetts, Wm. T. Phelps of Minnesota, J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, John Hancock, Hon. Anson Smyth, and R. H. Holbrook, of Ohio.

II.—THE NATIONAL TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

This body met Wednesday morning, August 17th, and was called to order by President D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts. An address of welcome by E R. Perkins, President of the Cleveland Board of Education, was happily responded to by the President, who then delivered the *Annual Address*. It gave an interesting review of the history of the Association, including its organization in 1857, the nine annual sessions since held, and the changes in its constitution, and recommended its reorganization on a more comprehensive plan. It was a brief and excellent address.

The remainder of the first day's session was devoted to—

1. A report by S. H. White, of Illinois, on *The Revision of the Constitution*. The revised constitution submitted consolidated the three National Associations into one organization under the title of THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, with four sections or departments, to wit: School Superintendence, Normal Schools, Elementary Schools, and Higher Instruction. The constitution was unanimously adopted.

2. A report on a *National University* by Dr. J. W. Hoyt, of Wisconsin, in which the leading offices of a true university were concisely stated, and the need of such an institution in this country was set forth. The report strongly urged the establishment of a National University, commensurate with the greatness of our country and the needs of the times. On the question of ways and means, the *how* of the undertaking, the committee wisely asked for more time.

3. A valuable report by Dr. J. B. Thompson, of New York, on the *Decimal*

System of Weights and Measures, in which the comparative merits of the different systems were considered, and the universal adoption of the metric system was recommended. It closed with the following resolutions, which were adopted:

Resolved, That a universal system of weights and measures, founded upon a common standard and the decimal system of notation, are alike important to commercial intercourse between different and distant nations, and to the progress of science and civilization throughout the world.

Resolved, That it is the opinion of this Association that the "Metric" system is nearer perfect than any other that can be reached, and therefore has the strongest claims for universal adoption.

Resolved, That we recommend its early introduction into our schools and seminaries of learning, as the best means of popularizing the system and securing its general use among the people.

4. A paper on "*The Proper Work of a Primary School*," by E. A. Sheldon, Principal of the Oswego Normal and Training School, N. Y. This was a re-statement of the author's well-known views on primary instruction. It urged the importance of the training of the senses by means of object lessons, in which the teacher is the guide. He stated that pupils made more progress in reading, spelling, arithmetic, etc., with such objective training than without it.

5. Two lessons given to classes of small pupils by Misses M. A. Lavyea and Kate Stephan, teachers in the public schools of Cleveland. The first was an "illustrative" lesson designed to explain the method of writing numbers by the decimal notation, and the second was an object lesson on "Knives." Both exercises were admirably conducted, but the first seemed to us of doubtful utility as a means of teaching the decimal notation. The illustration consumed some twenty minutes, and its *application* was quite as much of a mental feat as the comprehension of the principle.

6. An able and exhaustive address by Hon. John Eaton, National Commissioner of Education, on "*The Relation of the National Government to Public Education.*" We hope to give a synopsis of this important address next month, its great length forbidding its publication in full. Resolutions were subsequently passed approving of the views of the address; asking Congress to make larger appropriations to meet the claims of general education on the National Bureau, and appointing a committee, with Commissioner Eaton chairman, to urge the subject on the attention of Congress.

Thursday's proceedings included—

1. The election of officers, consisting of Hon. J. L. Pickard, Chicago, Ill., President; John Hancock, Cincinnati, O., Secretary, with twelve Vice-Presidents and twenty-seven Directors.

2. An excellent paper by Prof. Eben Tourjee, Director of the New England Conservatory of Music, Boston, on "*Music in its Relations to Common School Education.*" He presented cogent argumuents in favor of the general introduction of music as a branch of school education, and referred to the musical instruction in the schools of Boston as an illustration of methods and results. The paper was followed by a brief discussion.

3. A model lesson in vocal music, by Prof. Miller, of Illinois, the members of the Association forming the class; and a musical exercise with a class of girls, conducted by Prof. N. C. Stewart, of Cleveland.

4. A discussion on the motives and means which should be made prominent in school discipline and instruction, which was participated in by Hon. J. L. Pickard, and Hon. E. Weston, Illinois; Miss Eliza Schofield, Pennsylvania; J. H. Hoose and Mr. Johonnet, New York; Pres. E. T. Tappan, Pres. J. H. Fairchild, and E. E. White, Ohio. It was generally agreed that natural incentives should be used in preference to artificial. Natural incentives were divided into higher and lower, and the preference given to the former, when they can be made effective. The discussion was pointed, practical, and sensible, and, as a consequence, it was listened to with very great interest.

5. An instructive address by J. W. Dickinson, of Massachusetts, on the "Schools and Educational System of Germany." He gave the results of his observations with respect to courses of study, manner of teaching and government, compensation and qualification of teachers, etc. Many facts were stated in answer to questions, and, at the close, a hearty vote of thanks indicated the interest and satisfaction of the audience.

The principal exercises of Friday's session were—

1. A practical paper by J. H. Blodgett, of Illinois, on "The Claims of English Grammar in Common Schools," which was followed by a spirited discussion, participated in by Z. Richards, Washington; Hon. B. C. Hobbs, Indiana; and others.

2. An able paper by William T. Harris, Superintendent of Public Schools, St. Louis, on "*The Use and Abuse of Text-Books.*" After a suggestive review of the history and growth of systems of teaching, he considered the comparative merits of oral and text-book instruction. He conceded the value of object teaching in primary schools, but objected to allowing oral instruction too large a place. He favored text-book teaching. The subject was discussed by Supt. J. W. Bulkley, Brooklyn; Dr. Spear, Philadelphia; Dr. McGuffey, Virginia; Z. Richards, Washington; A. E. Sheldon, Oswego; and others.

3. An able and eloquent address by Hon. F. A. Sawyer, United States Senator, South Carolina, on the question, "*What can Free Schools do for a State?*"

Commissioner Eaton fcllowed with a few remarks; the customary resolutions of thanks were passed; President Hagar congratulated the members on the harmony and success of the session, and the Association adjourned.

The officers-elect of the several departments or sections are as follows:

School Superintendents:—President, Hon. W. D. Henkle, Ohio; Vice-President, W. M. Colby, Arkansas; Secretary, W. Johnson, Maine.

Normal Schools:—President, S. H. White, Illinois; Vice-President, C. C. Rounds, Maine; Secretary, A. L. Barber, District of Columbia.

Elementary Schools:—President, E. A. Sheldon, New York; Vice-President, A. C. Shortridge, Indiana; Secretary, W. E. Sheldon, Massachusetts.

Higher Instruction:—President, Charles W. Eliot, Massachusetts; Vice-President, N. S. Cobleigh, Tennessee; Secretary, S. G. Williams, Ohio.

—— Mr. Venable's poem in this number, entitled "A Vision of Science", is a fine production.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

In most of the German States parents are required by law to send their children to school at five years of age and to keep them in school till the age of twelve or fourteen, when the school life of the common people usually terminates. As a general rule pupils attend school every day and every term, and, as a result of such regular attendance, they make very rapid progress, accomplishing quite as much in eight years as American pupils do in ten. American youth have great mental activity and vigor, but their school progress is interrupted by irregular attendance. Their school training is not steady and persistent. It is believed that the efficiency of our schools is lessened full thirty per cent. by this one cause. These facts raise the question whether school attendance should not be regulated by law in this country—a question that is receiving more serious consideration from year to year. The right of the State to legislate upon this subject is now generally conceded, for the right to tax A to support a school to educate B's children, involves the right to make B send his children to school. But is compulsory education expedient in this country? Has not the voluntary system advantages which compensate for its losses? Would not a law preventing truancy and vagrancy remedy much of this evil, and this, too, without destroying the voluntary principle?

THE NATIONAL TEACHER.

It is now nearly ten years since the writer took editorial charge of the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, and during this time its circulation has gradually extended until its subscription list contains the names of active teachers and educators in nearly every State of the Union. Meantime the fact that its value to teachers in other States is somewhat lessened by its local features, has brought many urgent requests that its character be made NATIONAL, with assurances that such a change would insure a large increase of circulation throughout the country.

To meet this wide demand for a national edition of the *Monthly*, we issue this month the first number of THE NATIONAL TEACHER, which we hope to make truly national, both in character and circulation. We will only add, that we have taken this step relying on the teachers and school officers of the country for voluntary assistance. No educational journal *which does not subserve other business interests*, can pay large commissions to agents or give large premiums for subscriptions.

——WE send this number of the NATIONAL TEACHER to a large number of School Superintendents and Examiners in the hope that its character and aim may induce them to commend it to teachers and other active friends of education. With a very little effort many will be able to secure a considerable number of subscribers, thus benefiting teachers and promoting the cause. Who will lend a helping hand?

MISCELLANY.

—— We find, when too late to remedy the defect, that we have little space this month for educational intelligence, and so we make no attempt at classification. We intend to make this record a prominent and valuable feature of the Teacher, and, to this end, we earnestly solicit correspondence from the different States. Early copies of school reports, proceedings of educational associations, etc., are also solicited. We specially desire information respecting all movements for the advancement of education in the rural districts.

North-Eastern Ohio Normal Institute.—This institute was held at Cleveland, under the auspices of the North-eastern Ohio Teachers' Association, commencing August 29th, and continuing two weeks. It is thought to be the first of its kind ever held in this State, and perhaps in this country. Its object was to prepare teachers in the graded schools of this part of the State for carrying out the course of study recently adopted by the Association. It was attended by about three hundred and fifty superintendents and teachers of Cleveland, Akron, Massillon, Canton, Ravenna, Ashtabula, Painesville, Norwalk, Elyria, Oberlin, Cuyahoga Falls, Hudson, Newburg, and other places. The Cleveland Board of Education made an appropriation of three hundred dollars toward defraying the expenses, and granted to the teachers one week out of the school year to attend the institute. The school boards of other towns also made similar appropriations of money and time. The teachers were divided, according to the grades in which they teach, into five sections. Each section occupied a separate room, and the work of instruction was carried on in all simultaneously. The corps of instructors consisted of Messrs. Rickoff, Williams, Higley, Hotze, and Forbes of Cleveland, Prof. Harvey of Painesville, Mrs. Mary Howe Smith of New York, and Miss Cooper of Oswego. Mr. A. P. Root, of Cleveland, gave instruction in writing, and Prof. N. Coe Stewart, of Cleveland, gave instruction in vocal music. The unanimous verdict of those who attended is, that this new enterprise was a complete success. The North-eastern Ohio Teachers' Association will doubtless conduct a similar institute next year. The one just held can not fail to exert a very salutary influence on the schools of North-eastern Ohio.

S. F.

New York.—The first public school in New York City was organized in 1806, with an enrollment of sixty-seven pupils, and, in 1809, the "Public School Society" built its first school-house. In 1842, independent "Ward Schools" were organized, and, in 1853, these separate systems were consolidated, and the present free-school system established. The first year after the re-organization the schools enrolled 123,530 pupils, with an average attendance of 43,740. The report for 1869 gives an enrollment of 237,325, and an average attendance of 102,970. These pupils were taught by 2,400 teachers, at an aggregate expense of $2,961,361. These are suggestive facts. We also learn from the report of Hon. S. S. Randall, the retiring Superintendent, that there are now in operation thirty-one Evening Schools, with an attendance of over 13,000 pupils. The Evening High School, which provides superior instruction for over 1,200 pupils, is really a free technical school on a comprehensive plan. The city also sustains a Saturday Normal School for the improvement of those who are already employed as teachers. It was attended last year by 950 different teachers, including many of high attainments and large experience.——Mr. Randall congratulates the Board on the entire abolition of corporal punishment, and gives it, as his judgment, that there is no "absolute necessity" for this mode of discipline. He states that of the forty-eight male departments, in which alone corporal punishment was permissible last year, twenty-three did not resort to it. He recommends

"the suspension or expulsion of incorrigibly vicious or contumacious pupils" from the public schools. At the same time, he urges that measures be adopted to secure the attendance of the thirty thousand children, now growing up in ignorance and vice; that is, he would have one law to drive pupils out of the schools, and another to drive them in!——The Superintendents' Department was reorganized at the close of the last school year, as follows:

Henry Kiddle, General Superintendent,—salary, $4,750.
T. F. Harrison, First Assistant Supt.—Grammar Schools—salary, $4,200.
N. A. Calkins, First Assistant Supt.—Primary Schools—salary, $4,200.
J. H. Fanning, Second Assistant Supt.—Grammar Schools—salary, $3,800.
Wm. Jones, Second Assistant Supt.—Primary Schools—salary, $3,600.

CONNECTICUT.—The annual report of the State Board of Education is full of evidence that the first year of the free school law has been the most prosperous year in the history of the school system. The abolition of the rate-bills removed a dead weight and infused new vitality into the entire system. The statistics show an increase in *thirty-eight* specifications, and a decrease in but three—inexperienced teachers, poor school houses, and number of schools—the decrease in each case being a happy gain. The tendency to abandon the district system and to adopt the plan by which all the schools are managed by the town board, is a very hopeful movement. The report of Secretary Northrop is an able and valuable document. Among the important topics, discussed with great force, are the schooling of minors, the educational value of labor and apprenticeship, the relation of education to the industrial arts, drawing and the mechanic arts, the influence of study on health, and unsectarian schools. We congratulate Connecticut on her bright educational prospects.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The last Legislature passed a law requiring elementary and free-hand drawing to be taught in all the public schools of every grade in the Commonwealth; and requiring towns of 10,000 inhabitants and upwards to maintain a free school for the instruction of adults in mechanical drawing. These steps of progress were taken after a full inquiry into their practical importance, the results of which are ably presented in a brief report prepared by Secretary White of the State Board of Education.——This action of the State has been more than seconded by the city of Boston, which has taken an important step in art education. At a meeting of the Board held Sept. 13th, it was voted to employ a Normal Art Instructor from the South Kensington Art School, England, at a salary of $2,800. The Committee on Drawing were also authorized to establish three evening schools for instruction in drawing, the schools to be open at least two evenings a week from November to May.

OSWEGO NORMAL AND TRAINING SCHOOL.—This school continues in a prosperous condition. The number of different pupils in attendance last year was 432, and the number of graduates, 78. The course of instruction includes an "Elementary English Course," (two years), an "Advanced English Course," and a "Classical Course." Students who have mastered the elementary course, can complete the advance course in two years, and the classical in three years. Prof. Sheldon's annual report is largely devoted to a re-statement and elucidation of the educational principles and methods of the system, which, it is claimed, are often misunderstood and misrepresented. The discussion is characterized by great candor and sincerity, and it will do much to correct erroneous views respecting what is known as the "Oswego System."

MISSOURI.—An effort was made in the last General Assembly to pass a law giving private schools $10 of public school money for each child taught free of tuition. The bill, after an exciting debate, was defeated, and an amendment to the Constitution

was submitted to the people, providing that no appropriations of public money shall ever be made to aid any church or sectarian body, or any institution of learning controlled by any church or sectarian body; and that no grants or donations of personal property or real estate shall be made to any church or sectarian body.——The report of the Public Schools of St. Louis for 1869 gives an enumeration of 50,200 youth between 6 and 16 years of age, and an enrollment of 21,186 pupils in the day schools. The number of teachers employed is 344. Superintendent Harris devotes considerable space to the topics of school attendance and the course of study—both of which are discussed with great ability. The advantages and disadvantages of the graded system are also considered.

West Virginia.—State Supt. Williams has conducted some fifteen institutes since the first of July, and is now in the midst of a vigorous fall campaign. An appropriation from the Peabody Fund enables him to secure some assistance from abroad. Capt. Mitchell, Prof. Ogden, and Supt. McLaughlin of McConnelsville, have been among the helpers from Ohio. Prof. Woodruff of Pennsylvania, Prof. Kidd of Indiana, and Prof. Hoose of New York, have also done good service.——The board of education of Wheeling has voted that "the Science of Government and the Constitution of the United States shall be *indispensable* studies in the course of instruction in the grammar schools." Right. Why should American youth go out of schools founded to sustain free government, ignorant of its fundamental principles and organic law? Supt. Williams is wisely kept at the head of the schools.

Indianapolis.—The public schools closed in June last one of the most successful years in their history. The number of pupils enrolled was 5,808, with an average attendance of about 3,900. The whole number of teachers employed is 92, including a superintendent of the instruction in the primary grades, a special teacher of music, and a special teacher of gymnastics. The general superintendent has two assistants, each of whom superintends the schools in one-half of the city; and thus the instruction of all grades is subjected to constant and thorough inspection. But omitting details, we express the opinion that few cities in the United States have made as marked school progress in seven years as Indianapolis. In 1863, its school buildings were a disgrace and its schools were among the poorest in the country; now it is well supplied with superior buildings and its schools are among the best. We congratulate Supt. Shortridge on the results of his seven years' work.

Turkey.—A new public education law has been promulgated at Constantinople. Primary instruction is made compulsory for every inhabitant of the Turkish empire. The period of instruction for girls is fixed at from six to ten years of age, and for boys from six to eleven. The magistrates of districts and villages are to keep a register of the names of boys and girls whose age qualifies them for instruction, together with those of their parents or guardians. If any of these do not go to school, the magistrate is to warn the parent or guardian of his obligation, and if, after such notice, the child is not sent to school within a month, and no valid reason is given for its absence, a fine of from 5 to 100 piasters is to be imposed according to the means of the parent, and the child is to be taken to school by the authorities. * * * * The primary schools are to be either Mussulman or Christian, according to the religion which is most prevalent in the district. The higher schools, however, are to receive *Mussulmans and Christians indiscriminately*. "An Imperial Council for Public Instruction" has been established to see to the due execution of this law.—*London Illustrated News.*

BOOK NOTICES.

THE LAWS OF DISCURSIVE THOUGHT: Being a Text-Book of Formal Logic. By JAMES MCCOSH, LL.D., President of New Jersey College, Princeton, formerly Professor of Logic and Metaphysics, Queen's College, Belfast. New York: Robert Carter & Brothers, 530 Broadway.

When such a man as Dr. McCosh writes on such a subject as Logic, it is to be presumed that he will write something worth reading. In this we have not been disappointed. He devotes an unusually large space, nearly one-half the book, to "Notions", and in this part will be found that which has special value. The other part of the book does not rise much above the level of ordinary treatises.

His definition of "Notion" will not stand criticism, and his elucidation of it is even contradictory to the definition. He says: "The operation of the mind in contemplating an object or objects is called simple Apprehension. The object or objects apprehended constitute the Notion." Do we understand Dr. McCosh to teach that the object itself, as a tree, which is apprehended, is the notion? So he seems to say; but he immediately adds: "Sometimes the notion is of an object apart from any relation to others as 'man' and 'horse'." Here he says the notion is of an object, indicating that he distinguishes between a notion and its object. Again, after quoting from Whately the definition of a judgment, he adds: "But this definition can be accepted only when we understand by notions, not mental states, as such, but objects apprehended. When we say 'Alexander the Great was ambitious', we are comparing 'Alexander the Great' and 'ambitious', and not mere ideas of the mind."

He classifies notions as Percepts, Abstracts, and Concepts. In the discussion of this classification, if anywhere, must rest his claim to originality. We think, however, he fails in his attempt to show that the subject and predicate of (U) in Hamilton's classification are always Percepts or Abstracts. He says: "It is disputed what we are to make of those propositions in which the predicate is a general notion distributed, *e. g.*, 'all men are all rational beings.' It is clear that when we say simply 'all men are rational', we mean that every one man, every one in the class man is in the class rational. But if we have farther found that every rational being is in the class man, we are entitled to say, 'all men are all rational.' But what do we mean when we say so? The terms, it appears to us, are no longer general, standing for each and every one of a class; we do not mean 'every one man = all rational', nor every one man = every rational. The word 'all' does not now mean 'every one', but the whole collectively. The meaning in fact now is, 'the whole class men = the whole class rational.' If so, the terms are not general, applicable to each and every one of an indefinite number, but singular with a process of abstraction involved." In reference to this we remark, in the first place, the example chosen is not a good one to illustrate his theory; for it can not be found that "every rational being is in the class man." Dr. McCosh admits that God, Angels, and Devils are rational, and are not in the class man. In the second place, though the proposition may mean, "The whole class men = the whole class rational", yet does not this mean, "every one man = some one rational" and "every one rational = some one man"? The terms of the proposition are still concepts, but coextensive.

The author says: "An Abstract Notion is of a part or a quality or qualities drawn off from the rest of the object." We do not abstract the part of an object considered from the other parts; for this would be physical separation. Nor do we abstract it in thought; that is, think it as being separated from the rest of the object. This is a very common error. In abstraction we withdraw our thoughts from certain parts or attributes, that we may consider other parts or attributes; that is, we abstract *thoughts*, not external things.

The author enunciates the fundamental laws of thought, which, he says, "lie at the basis of all logical operations", at the close of his book. This is like putting the axioms of Geometry at the end, instead of at the beginning, or like putting the foundation of a building on the top. In what sense these "fundamental" laws can be fundamental to a system with such an arrangement, it is difficult to tell.

He is not always fortunate in his selection of syllogisms to illustrate valid arguments, as the following:

"No fixed star twinkles,
That body twinkles,
∴ It is not a fixed star."

We have nothing to say against the formal correctness of this argument; but in giving a valid argument, as to form, would it not be better to select one with *true* premises? Again, in illustrating the Sorites, he gives, as the middle or given syllogism, the following:

"He who administers poison is guilty of murder;
The prisoner administered poison:
∴ He is guilty of murder."

Whether "he who administers poison is guilty of murder" or not guilty, depends on two things: 1st. Whether the poison kills or not; 2d. Whether the poison was administered with malice aforethought or not.

The book is readable and suggestive, and will be useful.

WHITE'S GRADED-SCHOOL SERIES OF ARITHMETICS: Uniting Mental and Writen Exercises in a Natural System of Instruction. By E. E. WHITE, M.A. Complete in Three Books: I. Primary Arithmetic. II. Intermediate Arithmetic. III. Complete Arithmetic. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

In this series the combination of Mental and Written Arithmetic is a valuable characteristic feature, thus securing due attention to each method and avoiding the extremes of devoting too much time to Mental Arithmetic or of neglecting it altogether. Each higher book gives, from a more advanced standpoint, a concise summary of that portion of the subject treated in the lower books, and then proceeds to the discussion of the more advanced subjects. The definitions and rules, instead of being at first arbitrarily given, are deduced from facts and processes previously exhibited. We are acquainted with no series of Arithmetics so attractive, so fresh and practical, and, on the whole, so excellent. We heartily commend them for adoption. The publishers have performed their part admirably. A. SCHUYLER.

A MANUAL OF COMPOSITION AND RHETORIC: A Text-Book for Schools and Colleges. By JOHN S. HART, LL.D., Principal of the New Jersey State Normal School, Author of Hart's English Grammar, "In the School-Room," etc. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

The pages of this work bear clear evidence of the author's knowledge of his subject and the needs of school instruction. Its fullness and accuracy show years of careful study, and its arrangement, pertinent illustrations, and numerous examples for practice are evidently the result of a long experience as a teacher. It is not only a complete scientific treatise, but it is eminently a text-book with special adaptation to the wants of the learner and the class-room. One obvious excellence is the typographical arrangement. All important principles, definitions, and rules are printed in large type, and the illustrations, explanations, and other details, given in the form of notes, are printed below in small type. These notes are models of clearness and conciseness. We are not competent to decide whether the author is right in treating Style before Invention, but the teacher can begin with either, as he may prefer. We commend this work to the careful examination of every teacher of rhetoric. Its typography, paper, and binding are a credit to the enterprising publishers.

THE INDEPENDENT FIRST READER: Containing the Most Valuable Features of the Word System, Object Lessons, and Phonetics; and Choice Tales, Fables, etc., in Monosyllables. By J. MADISON WATSON, Author of National Readers and Spellers, etc. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The first fifteen lessons are composed of words containg the short vowels; the next fourteen lessons introduce the long vowels; and the next twelve lessons introduce the other vowel sounds. Each lesson has some ten new words, which are placed in columns before the sentences, thus facilitating a mastery of all new words before the reading of the sentences is attempted. Part Second consists of pleasing tales and fables, with all new words arranged in columns at the head of the lessons. These features adapt the book to the "Word Method" or the "Phonic Method", or, what is better, to a union of these methods. The book contains 680 words—all monosyllables. The paper is heavy, the type large and clear, and the illustrations numerous and beautiful. We like it.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGES AND THE AMERICAN PUBLIC. By NOAH PORTER, D.D., Professor in Yale College. New Haven, Conn.: Charles C. Chatfield & Co. 1870.

This treatise is composed of fifteen able papers on as many important topics connected with college instruction and management. Indeed, nearly every phase of the college question is considered, and the various reforms proposed are subjected to a thorough investigation and criticism. Several of these reforms are shown to be schemes which have been already tried and exploded. Indeed, we specially commend the careful perusal of this book to that class of would-be college reformers, who know little of the outside and less of the inside of the American college. They will be quite surprised to find that actual experience has made such sad work with some of their pet theories. But the treatise is not a blind defense of the present college system. It points out real defects and evils, and suggests needed and important changes. It should be read by every American educator.

ANALYSIS, PARSING, AND COMPOSITION: With Direct References to the Common School Grammar and Analytical and Practical English Grammar of Dr. Bullions's Series. Also adapted to Any Correct Grammar of the English Language. By JAMES CRUIKSHANK, LL.D., Assistant Superintendent of Schools, Brooklyn, N. Y. New York: Sheldon & Company. 1870.

This is an advanced text-book on English Grammar, with references to Bullions's series, but admitting of an independent use. It begins with a complete analysis of the sentence, and by numerous examples illustrates its structure and the relation and dependence of its elements. This is followed by a few pages on etymology, with parsing models and exercises, and a valuable section on the structure of words, with tables of prefixes and suffixes, Latin roots, etc. Part Second contains selections for analysis and parsing, with references and foot-notes to throw light on difficulties. Part Third consists of a few pages on Composition, in which are practical suggestions and exercises. The work also contains features which make it valuable to teachers.

—— PROF. JOHN S. HART, Principal of the New Jersey State Normal School, author of "Mistakes of Educated Men", and various other works, is now engaged in the preparation of a volume for Sunday-school Superintendents and Teachers, which will embrace his matured ideas on a subject that has largely claimed his attention for nearly forty years. As senior editor of *The Sunday-School Times*, Dr. Hart has occupied a prominent place among the Sabbath-school workers of the day; and this new work will embody rich thoughts, practical suggestions, and valuable methods.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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INFLUENCE OF STUDY ON HEALTH.

BY B. G. NORTHROP.

Alarmists have written eloquently on "the Slaughter of the Innocents" in school by over-study, alleging that severe application is impairing the health of multitudes, and that the study hours should be reduced to five, four, and, as some strenuously contend, three hours a day. It is a common opinion that study is unfavorable for health. My observations do not confirm the impression that our schools overtask the brain and injure the health. The body is the instrument through which the mind works, and its power depends, in no small degree, on the vigor of the physical system. Increased effort and energy of mind must be balanced by proper activity of the body. The mischievous error prevalent on this subject is a common excuse for indolence and inefficiency. Study need not be injurious to health. The mind itself was made to work. Its primal law is growth by work. It can gain strength only by spending it. The intensest study invigorates the body as well as the mind, strengthens both the nervous and muscular system, makes the blood course in stronger health-giving currents through the system, enlarges the brain, erects the form, softens the features, brightens the eye, animates the countenance, dignifies the whole person, and in every way conduces to health, provided only that it is pursued in accordance with the laws of hygiene as to diet, exercise, rest, sleep, and ventilation.

Henry Ward Beecher well says: "It is not work but worry that kills men. Work is healthy. You can hardly put more on a man than he can bear. Men literally worry themselves to death. Worry is rust upon the blade. It is not the revolution that destroys the machinery, but the friction. Fear secretes acid, but love and trust are sweet juices."

Undoubtedly the minds of very little children are often stimulated by parents and nurses to premature and therefore injurious activity. I have no sympathy with any processes for initiating babes in the knowledge of books. Such prodigies, however they may gratify the pride of parents, always suggest painful apprehensions of future debility and premature decrepitude. Precocity is unnatural and undesirable, because it is the symptom, if not the cause of disease. Early ripeness of mind, as of fruit, is hastened by a secret enemy at the core, and, however attractive the exterior, it is found in reality lifeless and insipid. It shows well for a time, like plants in a hot-house with large tops and little roots. What is gained in time poorly compensates for the loss of maturity and spirit. Precocity stints the growth of both body and mind, if it does not become the tomb of talents and health. Lucretia Maria Davidson wrote verses at four years, and died before completing her seventeenth year, leaving over two hundred separate pieces of poetic composition. Her sister Margaret began to write poetry at six, at ten acted in a passionate drama in New York City, and died at fourteen.

Where is to be found a man of strength who was a prodigy in reading and reasoning at four years? Dr. Johnson used dryly to ask, "What becomes of all the clever children?" Many children begin the study of books when they should be following the strong native bent of childhood in observing objects. The perceptive faculties should be first addressed. Teachers too seldom inquire what is the order in which the juvenile powers are to be developed, and hence lessons are often assigned which task the reflective faculties chiefly, when, in the natural order of growth, they should be comparatively latent. Violence is done to a child who at this tender age is harrassed with problems of arithmetic or the intricacies of grammar. Observation precedes reflection. At the earliest school age, the memory as well as the perceptive faculties may be pleasantly and safely exercised with attractive lessons, or observations rather, on form, color, size, weight, place, number, time, the obvious qualities of common things, and the form or spelling of words, and in reading. Let

those exercises be very brief—relieved after each lesson by gymnastics or marchings and music, and the primary school becomes a sort of play—safe and healthful for vigorous children of five years of age.

But the objection under consideration relates chiefly to much older children. In regard to them even the wise man is quoted to confirm that view: "Much study is a weariness of the flesh." Very true. So also the most invigorating and healthful kinds of labor and exercise bring for the time weariness, till relieved by repose. There are undoubtedly exceptional cases of older children, whose nervous state, or otherwise abnormal condition, requires the partial or entire suspension of study. But even in these cases, the illness is commonly due to other causes than excessive study. When the plainest laws of health are violated, when, for example, children are crammed with mince-pies, colored candies, or doughnuts, between meals and before retiring, it is hardly fair that the inevitable result should be charged to the overtasking of the teacher.

After the earnest studies of school, and in addition to all the gymnastics there introduced, let children be encouraged to walk and ride, work and play, run and romp; let them row boats, jump rope, trundle hoop, twang the bow, pitch quoits, try for ten strikes, play at ball, base, cricket, or croquet, or with shuttlecock and battledoor, and then we shall hear far less of the evil of overtasking the brain. I have no fear of stimulating healthy children, of suitable age, to excessive study during school hours, provided they are relieved by proper intervals for gymnastics and music.

To be healthful and inspiring, study must be pursued not as a task—hated and coerced, but under the impulse of such incentives as make it a noble, worthy, cheerful, joyous work. When interest is awakened, ambition kindled, and progress made, the consciousness of improvement becomes a reward of past effort, and a healthful motive to new exertions. The exhilaration of success is a standard hygiene for the body, and cures many maladies which no therapeutic agents can reach. In the school, as in the world, far more rust out than wear out. Study is most tedious and wearisome to those who study least. Drones always have the toughest time. Grumblers make poor scholars, and their lessons are uniformly "hard" and "too long." The time and thought expended in shirking would be ample to master their tasks. Sloth, gormandizing and worry kill their thousands

where over-study harms one. The curse of Heaven rests on laziness and gluttony. By the very constitution of our being they are fitted to beget that torpor and despondency which chill the blood, deaden the nerves, enfeeble the muscles, and derange the whole vital machinery. Fretting, fidgeting, ennui, and anxiety are among the most common causes of disease. While now, as of old, "a merry heart doeth good like medicine," a weak will easily succumbs to the ills of life. The alarm occasioned by the approach of a contagious disease often weakens the power of resistance, and directly invites the very disease so much dreaded. Bad news cloys the appetite and clogs digestion; fear relaxes the muscles and checks both the breathing and circulation; and fright makes the extremities cold, the face flushed and the temples throb. On the other hand, high aspiration and enthusiasm help digestion and respiration, and send an increased supply of vital energy to all parts of the body. Courage and work invigorate the whole system, and lift one into a purer atmosphere, above the reach of contagion.

The lazy groan most over their "arduous duties;" while earnest workers *talk* little about the exhausting labors of their profession. Of all creatures, the sloth would seem to be most wearied and worn. "He that is slothful in his work is brother to him that is a greater waster,"—first of all of health. Said Dr. Humphrey, for twenty-two years the President of Amherst College, and who reached the age of eighty-two: "I have yet to see the man who died from the effects of study." Kant, an indefatigable student in the most profound themes of metaphysics, and leader of a new school in philosophy, lived beyond the limits of three-score and ten. As the result of his long experience and wide observation, he was wont to say: "Intellectual pursuits tend to prolong life." He placed great reliance on the power of *cheerfulness* and *will* in resisting disease. "Be of good cheer" is as wise a prescription for the health of the body as of the soul.

Barbaric races are comparatively puny and short-lived. The increase of knowledge and the advance of civilization have greatly lengthened human life. This fact is abundantly established by statistics in all of the most educated countries of the world, and the careful investigations of life insurance companies. Old men are seldom found among savages, and the rate of mortality is proportioned in some measure to the *degree* of barbarism; while early deaths everywhere diminish as science and

general culture advance. It is said that the statistics of Geneva show that, from 1600 to 1700, the average length of life in that city was 13 years and 3 months. From 1700 to 1750, it was 27 years and 9 months. From 1750 to 1800, it was 36 years and 3 months. From 1800 to 1833, it was 43 years and 6 months.

The great scholars, philosophers, poets, statesmen, orators, discoverers and savants, have been, as a general fact, men of abounding health and long-lived. The Necrology of ministers, as shown in the annual reports of different denominations, is striking in this particular, especially in view of the well-known fact that physical infirmity sometimes determines the choice of a professional life. In some families, the son who is too frail to work goes to college. Many years ago, one of five sons of a New Hampshire farmer was sent to college, because his feeble constitution could not endure the labors of the farm, which his rugged brothers pursued for life. He was long a scholarly and successful pastor, and recently died at eighty-five, surviving all his brothers. Study evidently prolonged his life.

To give a few out of a multitude of illustrations, Lord Bacon, Milton, McIntosh, Burke, Berkeley, Sir William Hamilton, President Stiles, President Dwight, Washington, Benjamin Rush and Audubon, reached nearly three-score and ten years. Dryden, Adam Clark, Leibnitz, Linnæus, Lock, Crabb, Dugal Stewart, Swift, Roger Bacon, Hayden, Handel, Webster and Wilberforce, ranged from seventy to eighty.

The advanced age of the great British statesmen, among the most intense thinkers of the world, strikingly illustrates the healthfulness of intellectual pursuits. Lord John Russell is now seventy-eight. Lord Palmerston was Premier at eighty, and died at eighty-one. Lord Brougham made able speeches in Parliament after he was eighty-seven, and died at ninety. Lord Lyndhurst electrified the House of Lords by a brilliant speech when he was *ninety*, and died at ninety-one.

The average age of the deceased Presidents of Yale College is sixty-nine years, and of all the deceased Presidents and Professors, sixty-five and one-third years.

The average age of all the deceased presidents of the United States, now fifteen in number, is seventy-four and one-half years. Mr. Lincoln, falling by the hand of an assassin while in health and, with one exception, the youngest of all the Presidents at his premature death, of course unduly reduces this average. One—Millard Fillmore—is still living at the age of seventy.

Wordsworth, Rollin, Roscoe, Dr. Harvey and Chief Justice Marshall died at eighty. The three Adamses—Governor Samuel, John, and John Quincy—and Noah Webster averaged eighty-five. John Wesley, leading a life of intense activity, continued to work without faltering till one week before his death, at the age of eighty-eight.

Carl Ritter, Franklin, Pestalozzi, Herschel, Newton, Swedenborg, Mirabeau, Rowland Hill, Washington Irving, the astronomer Halley, the mathematician Hutton, the theologians Beecher, Emmons and Dana, averaged eighty-five years. Hobbs, Humboldt, Ferguson, Sir Cristopher Wren, Bishop Wilson, Fontenelle, William Ellery, Presidents Johnson, of Columbia College, Day, of Yale, and Nott, of Union, averaged ninety-two.

These individual cases illustrate rather than prove my position. Many similar facts might be given to confirm this theory. But the figures given below amount to a demonstration of the healthfulness of intellectual pursuits. They clearly prove that longevity of scholars is greater than that of any other class of men.

I have collected the statistics as to the average age of the deceased officers and graduates of Yale College from its foundation in 1700. This evidence is the more satisfactory because it embraces large numbers and a long period of time.

During the whole of the eighteenth century, the average age was nearly 62 years. This reckoning does not include the four living graduates, whose average age is over 94 years. Of those graduated the first twenty years of the present century—213 still survive, whose ages of course already average over 80. While the average of the 878 deceased members of these classes is nearly 56½. Include the 213 survivors even at their present age, and a very high rate of longevity is manifest.

Dr. Palmer's statistic of Harvard College from the year 1851 to 1863, show the average age of Harvard graduates, deceased during that period, to be 58, while throughout the State of Massachusetts, the average of all who die after they reach 20, is only 50. Here adults only enter into the comparison in either case.

My investigations on this subject establish another striking fact. As a general rule in the most advanced years of literary men, when the bodily sight has failed in part or entirely, the mental eye has remained undimmed. This remarkable continuance of reason and intellectual vigor to extreme age is itself a proof of the healthfulness of study.

It is not study itself, then, that injures health, but habits and conditions that have no necessary connection with study. Aside from facts, it seems improbable that the culture and exercise of the noblest part of our nature, should prove a drain upon the vital functions of the body. Let study be pursued in our schools in accordance with the laws of hygiene; let singing and gymnastics alternate with lessons and recitations; let the posture of pupils be erect, their breathing deep and the rooms ventilated, and all proper rules of health be heeded, and little will be said of "the murder of the innocents in school." Indiscretions at home do a thousand fold more harm than over study at school. Concerts, parties, balls, late hours generally, neglect of exercise in the open air, three or four hours' daily confinement at the piano, excessive or indigestible food and unventilated sleeping rooms, suggest the secret of many pale faces and frail forms.

LECTURES AND TEXT-BOOKS.

BY JOSEPH ALDEN.*

When the Universities of Europe were established, teaching by lectures was a necessity. Universities were established long before the art of printing was invented. They retain to this day the practice of instruction by lectures. Hence, it is regarded by many as the highest form of instruction. Hence, some of our institutions lay great stress on the courses of lectures which are delivered or promised in addition to the regular course of study and instruction in connection with text-books.

It seems to me that we should ask, not what they do in Germany or anywhere else, but what is the best way of training the minds of our pupils? To determine this, teachers should freely express their views to one another, and especially the result of their experience.

The observation and experience of the writer have led him to place a low estimate on lectures as an educating force. He has been present at lectures by which important truths were clearly set forth in accurate and ornate language. The impression received by the students was that they had heard a splendid lecture—that the lecturer was an able man. Beyond this there was

* President State Normal School, Albany, N. Y.

nothing definite. There was no such reception of truth as made it influential on subsequent trains of thought. The subjective condition of the student's mind was but slightly changed by the lectures.

Had the same truths been set before the mind by colloquial discussion, had the student's mind been placed, by skillful questions, in an attitude to see those truths for himself, and had he been required to tell them to his teacher, they would have strongly influenced his subsequent thinking.

It may be said that the student should take notes of the lectures, and be examined upon them. If the student simply repeats what he has heard, it is not certain that he has learned anything. If the examination be a discussion of the subject, it should precede the lecture. When a subject has been thoroughly discussed, when all the questions of the student have been answered, when the teacher is satisfied that the student has seen all the points in detail, it may be well for him to give a lecture which shall be analagous to the summing up of the judge.

The teaching most common in this country is in connection with text-books. A lesson is assigned which the student is expected to learn, that is, to commit to memory, at least so far as ideas are concerned, and to understand so far as he is able. At the recitation, the teacher is expected to explain the lesson to make everything clear.

The explanation ought to precede the study of the book. It is unwise to require the student to commit to memory propositions—words which awaken no ideas in his mind. Memory was given us to remember what we know—not what we do not know. It is not affirmed that he should count as knowledge and commit to memory only those things which he fully understands, for in that case he would commit nothing to memory; but that he should not commit to memory forms of expression which to him are without meaning.

Many of the text-books in use contain truths expressed in the most condensed and general form. Their makers seem to have proceeded on the assumption that the mind first perceives general and then descends to particular truths. Now the fact, patent to every observer, is, that the mind, in acquiring knowledge, always begins with the particular facts, and proceeds to general facts. It can acquire knowledge (except by testimony) in no other way. It can not perceive a general truth until it has perceived one or more particular truths exemplifying it. State any

general truth, such as "all material bodies have gravity;" or, "all men are mortal; or, "the whole is greater than its part." The mind can not perceive these truths until it has previously perceived an individual fact of gravity; an individual fact of materiality; an individual fact or exemplification of the truth that the whole is greater than its part. Unless the mind has perceived these individual facts, the words expressing the general facts are, to that mind, as destitute of meaning as are the words of an unknown tongue.

Hence, the student should begin with individual truths, although, unfortunately, general truths will meet him at the outset in almost every text-book. Text-books, as they are, should follow—not go before the instructions of the teacher. The subject should be taught orally. Skillful questions should lead the pupil to make as many sound inferences as possible. Truths thus reached are his own by a different tenure from that of memory. When the student has thus gone over the subject, the text-book may be intelligible and useful. But to this end, the explanations, or rather the instructions, of the teacher should precede the study of the text-book. The fact that it may lead to a rejection of the text-book, does not affect the truth of my position.

The most objectionable text-books in use are those relating to history—history for schools. I have sometimes thought that the study of such books is adapted to give one about as much knowledge of history as the study of a Concordance gives of the Bible. All the words contained in the Bible are in the Concordance. Still it is not a very interesting and instructive book to study. One can not learn from its study many of the facts and doctrines of the Bible. And one can not learn many of the facts and principles of history from these text-books.

Their condensed statements and allusions may be intelligible to one who is familiar with the facts of history, but very unintelligible to those who are obliged to study them. A class book in history, that should contain only such statements and allusions as the pupils can understand, would be a great blessing to the rising generation.

Some teachers discard text-books altogether. They present to their pupils truth in what they regard as a more excellent way. Can not their utterances be printed? And would they not be as valuable to their pupils in type as in manuscript? It seems to me that the pupil would thus be saved the mechanical labor of constructing his text-book at the dictation of the teacher.

Some can practice this more excellent way better than others. Some know how to teach better than others. By means of the press, their skill may be made available to those less highly gifted. It will be well for the cause of education when text-books are made by skillful and experienced teachers.

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

No. III. *Lessons in Number.*

BY WM. F. PHELPS.

Children begin to have some conception of number as early as the age of three or four years. Hence, simple and judicious exercises in this department should be introduced about the third week after the child has entered school, but not sooner, that he may first make a fair beginning in his reading and writing. *From the concrete to the abstract, from the known to the unknown*, are principles that the teacher should ever bear in mind and apply in the development of this subject with young children. That is to say, through the actual *handling and grouping of objects*, children should learn to name, add, subtract, multiply, and divide numbers. Thus, 1 apple and 1 apple are 2 apples—1 and 1 are 2, etc. Beans, buttons, pebbles, blocks, straight sticks, etc., are quite indispensable in a number lesson of this grade. The following course has been found to be very useful for the first year in school:

Three weeks should be spent upon numbers from 1 to 10 inclusive. Beginning with the smaller numbers, the pupils should be exercised in collecting the required number of beans, buttons, etc., to point to a like number of objects in the room, to make a corresponding number of marks on the blackboard, and to recognize and name such groups as the teacher may form, etc. Finally let the children be drilled in counting ten objects, and afterward abstractly backwards and forwards, and in recognizing and writing the figures 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10.

The comparison of numbers may now be taken up. In this exercise the children should be required to state, (1) numbers greater than any given one; (2) numbers less than the given one; (3) *all* greater than any assigned number, not exceeding 10, of

course; (4) all less; (5) of two numbers mentioned let them specify intermediate ones. Three or four lessons should now be given upon the foregoing numbers, teaching their use as *ordinals*. To aid in this drill, a neat little ladder with ten rounds will be found most useful. Thus let the little ones be taught to name "1st round," "2d round," "3d round," etc. Rows of objects may be arranged, and the position or order of each may be described, as, "the bell is 1st, the book is 2d, the pencil is 3d," etc.

Addition and subtraction should now follow, the results not exceeding 10. Then alternate addition and subtraction of the same numbers. The processes are direct contrasts, and will not only make variety but afford a fine exercise for the perceptive faculties. Through all these, it is understood, of course, that the use of objects is to be continued. Teach first the addition of all numbers to 1, then the subtraction of 1 from other numbers, thus:

0	and	1	are	1		1	less	1	is 0
1	and	1	are	2		2	less	1	is 1
2	and	1	are	3		3	less	1	is 2
3	and	1	are	4		4	less	1	is 3
4	and	1	are	5		5	less	1	is 6
5	and	1	are	6		6	less	1	is 5
6	and	1	are	7		7	less	1	is 6
7	and	1	are	8		8	less	1	is 7
8	and	1	are	9		9	less	1	is 8
9	and	1	are	10		10	less	1	is 9

Two of these lines, reading across, per day are sufficient. They should always be taught in this order, (1) *with objects in the hands of the pupils, the results being expressed concretely;* (2) abstractly; (3) written on the board; (4) read from the board by children; (5) made practical by careful miscellaneous questioning; and (6) they should be reproduced from memory upon the slates with which each child should be furnished.

It will probably require three or four weeks for the children to learn to add and subtract 1 to and from the succeding numbers to 10, and to write the foregoing tables on their slates. The same process or steps should be carried out thoroughly with 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8 and 9 respectively.

As a general review, it would be profitable to spend some time in forming numbers in many different ways, thus:

1	and	9	are	10		6	and	4	are 10
2	and	8	are	10		7	and	3	are 10
3	and	7	are	10		8	and	2	are 10
4	and	6	are	10		9	and	1	are 10
5	and	5	are	10					

The same process may be repeated, using 8, 7, 6, 5, 4, and 3. Thus 1 and 8 are 9, 2 and 7 are 9, etc.

Next let the pupils be taught to subtract a given number from the unexpressed sum of two other numbers, thus:

2 and 3 less 4 are how many?
3 and 3 less 2 are how many?

Then subtract a given number from the unexpressed sum of three numbers, thus:

2+3+4 less 5 are how many? 5+1+3 less 7 are how many? etc.

Let multiplication next be taught in the same spirit, *based upon addition*, using objects and illustrations freely at first. Do not forget the principle: "From the known to the unknown." The exercises in multiplication will be quite limited, since the *results must not exceed 10.* In the process of teaching muliplication, let the children use the time between lessons, or a portion of it, in reproducing tables on their slates, like the following:

Once	1	is	1		5	times	1	are 5
2	times	1	are 2		6	times	1	are 6
3	times	1	are 3		7	times	1	are 7
4	times	1	are 4		8	times	1	are 8 &c.

Division may be taught by arranging groups of one kind of objects, then requiring the pupils to separate them. For instance, place four buttons in a group, and let us see how many small groups of two buttons they will make. Then how many twos are there in 4? These exercises should be systematized like the foregoing, and tables should be formed and written upon the slates, as in addition, subtraction and multiplication. These lessons as suggested, carefully carried out, will furnish abundant work for the children for one year in number.

Next in order, let the numbers and figures from eleven to one hundred inclusive be taught. The plan should be similar to that employed for the first ten numbers, as far as practicable and necessary. The foundation having been well laid in the first year's course, the progress of the pupils will now be more rapid and the labor of the teacher much diminished. To aid the children in learning to make the figures on their slates, they should be neatly made in a checked square upon the blackboard, large enough to be seen from any part of the room.

Every primary exercise in number should give the child something *to do*, as well as something *to study*.

ELEMENTARY INSTRUCTION IN ARITHMETIC.

BY J. C. GREENOUGH.

Children are active in acquiring a knowledge of facts, long before they are able to deduce principles from facts, or even to understand the principles deduced. Principles, arranged in the order of their dependence, constitute science. Before attempting to study the science of numbers, or any other science, the pupils should know those facts upon the knowledge of which a knowledge of the principles of the science depends. These facts constitute an elementary course of instruction.

In an elementary course, facts only should be taught. The teacher should not attempt to teach definitions, or to deduce general principles. The pupil should be trained in adding, subtracting, multiplying, and dividing numbers, without being required to state the technical definitions of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division. The teacher will do well to reject the use, even, of technical terms, until the pupil has occasion to use them in the advanced or scientific course, that the pupil may not form the habit of using words to him unintelligible. What the elementary course shall include, must depend in a degree upon the age and ability of the pupils, and also upon the scientific course which is to follow. It should not include less than a knowledge of the names and expressions of numbers from one to one hundred inclusive, and of the simple operations with these numbers, in all cases in which the results obtained do not exceed one hundred.

In a former article we noticed what is to be done in teaching the names, the expressions, and the analysis and synthesis of numbers, from one to twenty inclusive. This part of the course should be thoroughly mastered before much else is attempted. Objects should be used in these first lessons, so long as objects are an aid. Some, who pervert object teaching until they make the use of material objects an end in itself, require their pupils, in their computations, to manipulate balls or pebbles or other things, long after such things have become a hindrance. The use of objects is properly but a means of enabling the pupil to compute readily when the objects are not in his presence.

The teacher should "hasten slowly," knowing that much repetion is necessary to fix in the memory of the pupils the results

that are found by analysis, and that much time is required for such repetition. The teacher should be content to dwell upon the numbers which together make any one number, until the analysis and synthesis of that number can be accurately and readily stated by the pupils, and, in every case, before considering a new number, what has been learned of preceding numbers, should be carefully reviewed.

When the pupil has thus passed over the course thoroughly as far as the number twenty-one, and has also been taught the names and the written expressions of numbers from twenty to one hundred inclusive, he is prepared for a series of counting exercises, the object of which is to learn the combinations of numbers found between one and one hundred. The first counting exercises will be counting on and off by two,—one in which we begin with one, and continue to count on two until we reach ninety-nine, and then reverse the work by counting off by two,—another, in which we begin by counting two with two. In counting exercises with three, there will be three series of exercises, as the pupil begins with one, two, or three. With four, there will be four series; with five, five, etc. In the last series of these counting exercises, the number ten will be used in counting on, and in counting off. The thorough knowledge which the pupil, by previous lessons, will have gained of numbers less than twenty, will render these counting exercises comparatively easy. When the combinations occurring between one and one hundred are thus thoroughly learned, the pupil will then have a knowledge more important in its relations to his subsequent knowledge of numbers, than any other knowledge.

I have so far spoken of a very limited elementary course. The course for most classes should include, in addition to what has been noticed, the making and learning of a table of factors and products as far as the product of ten tens,—the naming of equal parts of a unit and operations with such parts,—and the more useful tables usually included in compound numbers. The table of factors and products should be made out by the pupils, assisted by a few directions from the teacher. They should learn and fix in memory the table as they proceed. For instance, in making the table, they should neither find nor repeat products of which three is a factor, until they have so far fixed in mind products of which two is a factor, that the factors already used certainly and instantly bring to mind their products.

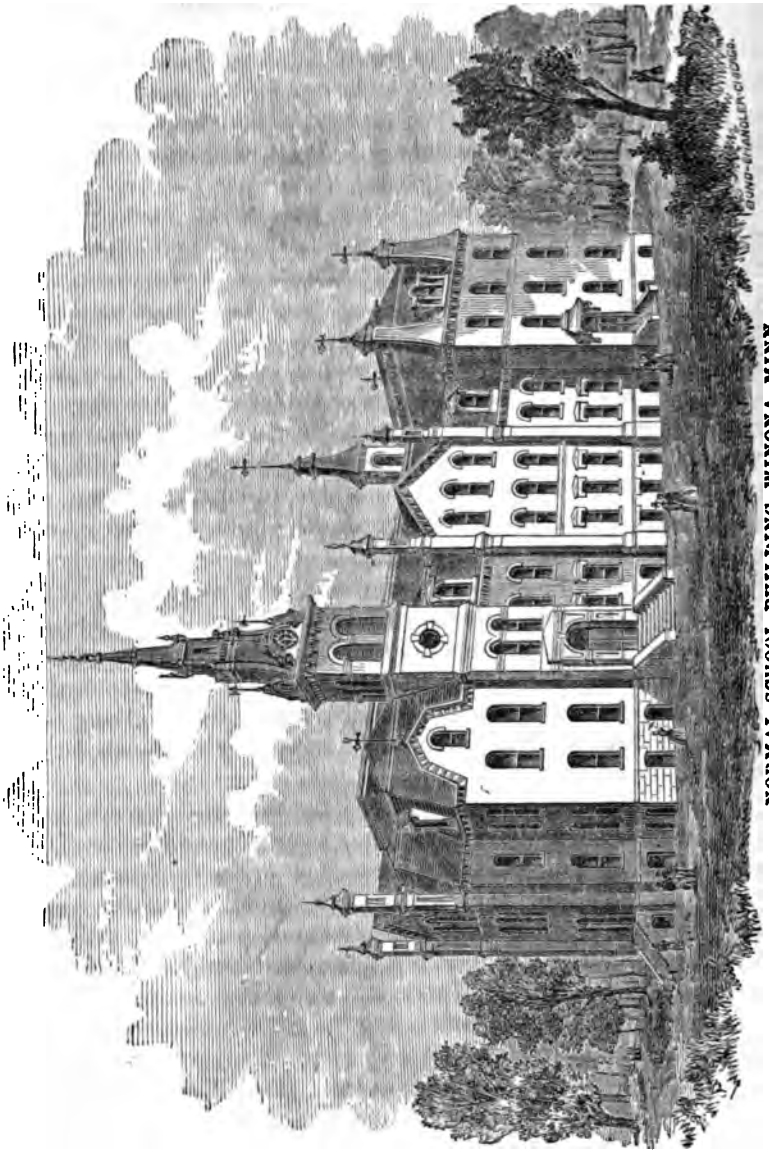
In teaching a table and in measuring length, or in teaching

any other like table, so far as possible, the teacher should bring into the presence of the pupil objects, by means of which the pupil can know of the units expressed in the tables. By means of these objects, the pupil should be led to make out the tables for himself.

While advancing according to a rigid system, leaving no uncertainties in the minds of the pupils to baffle and discourage them as they progress, the teacher must be careful so to vary the work as to avoid monotony. The younger the pupil and the less his power of application, the more the need of varying his work. One way of avoiding monotony is, to propose questions relating to different things; another way is to vary the mode of recitation, and an enthusiastic teacher will find many ways of doing this. He will range his pupils at the blackboard, and let one propose numbers to be expressed in a column, and then counted together in concert, or the pupils will successively give the result of one number counted on to the result previously found. He will require each pupil to place a column expressing numbers of his own selection upon the board, then after they have found their sum, he will have them change places and one prove the work of another. But I need not delineate farther. The enthusiastic teacher will contrive more ways of giving interest to a recitation in elementary arithmetic than can be described in a long article.

I have said nothing of text-books, and will reserve until another time suggestions respecting their use and abuse. They are always helpful to a class, if adapted to the condition of the class. Excellent primary arithmetics, having a graded course of lessons, in accordance, to a good degree, with the plan I have delineated, have lately been published by Brewer & Tileston, of Boston, and by Wilson, Hinkle & Co., of Cincinnati. But the true teacher can never find a book that will render it right or fitting for him to rest content with merely assigning and hearing lessons furnished by a distant author. He will make the minds of his pupils the objects of his study, that he may know their individual wants, and will constantly exercise his skill and ingenuity in meeting those wants.

Principles and definitions in arithmetic should be deduced and stated by the pupils, under the guidance of the teacher.



NORMAL SCHOOL BUILDING, WINONA, MINN.

FIRST NORMAL SCHOOL BUILDING OF MINNESOTA.

The above cut will give the reader some idea of this magnificent edifice It is not only beautiful and massive in architectural appearance, but is most admirably planned.

The main edifice is 63 by 78 feet, and is intersected at each

extremity by a wing 50 by 85 feet. The front and rear walls of the main building are supported by turrets, and the east wing is surmounted by a tower, 130 feet high. The walls are of red bricks, with facings and trimmings of a drab colored sandstone, making a very pleasing contrast. The roof is of the French or Mansard style.

The basement, which is 10 feet in the clear, contains the janitor's rooms, a laboratory and lecture room, with elevated seats, exercise and calisthenic rooms, and furnace and store rooms.

The first story has a passage-hall or corridor, 10 by 166 feet, running through the entire building and intersected by transverse corridors, eight large school rooms, four for model classes and four for the schools of practice, a reception room, etc.

The second story contains, in the main building, the "Assembly Room," 63 by 78 feet, occupying its entire area; in the east wing, the principal's office, the library, and two large recitation rooms, and, in the west wing, two recitation rooms and two ladies' wardrobe rooms.

The third story contains, in the main building, "Normal Hall," capable of seating 800 to 1000 persons; in the west wing, four large recitation rooms; and, in the east wing, a suite of rooms for a museum of natural history. The fourth story of the west wing contains two rooms, 33 by 35 feet, with skylights, for drawing classes.

The building is heated and ventilated by Ruttan's system, by which *warm* pure air is brought into each room and the impure air carried out by a system of circulation. The turrets and ventilating shaft are the exit tubes. The system is giving good satisfaction.

The entire cost of the building, including grounds, furniture, and apparatus, is about $150,000.

THE UNIVERSAL METHOD OF APPROXIMATION.

BY THOMAS HILL.

In White's new series of Arithmetics, the best by far which have seen since Chase's was out of print, the last book is entitled 'A Complete Arithmetic." Yet it omits Double Position, the universal method of approximation.

In every reverse process we are frequently obliged to be con-

tent with approximate results. Thus in dividing ten by three, in the decimal system, or in extracting the square root of twenty, only approximate results are possible.

The most general axioms for obtaining approximate results are the assumptions, 1st, that the errors of results are in some degree proportionate to the error of the data; 2nd, that this proportion is more close as the errors are smaller. On these assumptions a very large part of our inductive investigations proceed, not only in mathematics, but in physics, and in the social sciences.

All arithmetical problems involving one unknown quantity, x, can be so arranged that certain operations upon x will yield a given constant, c. If now we assume x to have successively the values p and q, and find that these yield the results $c+a$ and $c+b$, the first axiom gives us a means of approximating to x. For by that axiom,

$$\frac{p-x}{q-x}=\frac{a}{b};\quad \text{whence}\quad bp-bx=aq-ax,\quad \text{and}\quad x=\frac{aq-bp}{a-b}$$

and by the second axiom this approximate value of x being substituted for p or q (whichever was most erroneous) gives us the means of nearer approximation. This is precisely the rule of Double Position in Daboll's Arithmetic, and, from its generality and universal usefulness, it certainly deserves a place in a *complete* treatise on Arithmetic.

It may be easier to explain to a child a secondary proportion from our first axiom, giving a correction for p instead of the corrected value. Thus, the difference of the errors a and b is to a as the difference between p and q is to the error of p. Regard must be had to the algebraic signs in both these formulas. These rules in an arithmetical form would be as follows:

RULE I.—*Arrange the question so that certain operations upon the required number shall yield a fixed result. Make two suppositions (or positions) for the number, and perform the operations, noting the errors of result. Multiply each error by the other position. If the errors are both in the same direction, divide the difference of these products by the difference of the errors, otherwise divide the sum of the products by the sum of the errors;—the quotient is a corrected position.*

RULE II.—*Multiply the first error by the difference of positions, and divide by the difference of results; the quotient is a correction to be added to or subtracted from the first position.*

EXAMPLE.—Find the number which is double the difference between its square and its cube.

This question must be rearranged thus: From the cube of the number subtract successively the square and the half number; the remainder must be zero.

We make the two positions, 1.4, and 1.5. Subtracting from the cubes of these numbers, the squares, and half the numbers, the remainders are .085 and .375, which are the errors, because the remainders should be zero.

By the first rule, $(.085\times1.5-.375\times1.4)\div(.085-.375)=1.37$.

By the second rule, $(.085\times.1)\div(.085-.375)=.029$, which is to be subtracted from 1.4, because increasing 1.4 to 1.5 increased the error.

On testing 1.37 the error of result is +.009, showing that 1.367 is nearer, and by using 1.37 and 1.367, a third approximation is obtained toward the root 1.3660254. The root —.3660254 could be found in the same way; and also the root 0.

[We are too well pleased with the very high commendation, which Dr. Hill gives our arithmetics, to be sensitive respecting his criticism. It may, however, be proper to say, that we omitted Double Position because we did not consider the method of sufficient practical importance to be included in a *school* arithmetic. We learned it when a boy, but have never used it either in solving arithmetical problems or in practical life. It is found in very few school arithmetics, issued since Daboll's, and it is not included in most of the "*Higher*" arithmetics. The opinion of so eminent a mathematician and teacher as the ex-President of Harvard College, will, however, cause us to reconsider the subject before a second edition of our series is issued.—EDITOR.]

GRADED SCHOOLS.

BY J. L. PICKARD.*

A few words in favor of a graded system, guarded against serious objections, may not be amiss. The objections to any one system lie against all systems. The discussion rests between some system and no system. We must either have some prescribed course of study or leave all to chance or to the whim of the pupil. Public money can not be expended for private purposes. Our public schools, therefore, should not have for their aim the gratification of private caprice, but must, if true to

* Superintendent of Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.

themselves, seek the public good through the best possible training of future citizens. Let every pupil in our schools select his own studies and pursue only such as happen to strike his fancy, and we shall have a mass of crooked, mis-shapen material out of which to build a State. Certain kinds of knowledge are generally conceded to be necessary in such an education as will serve the State well. All States, having any schools at all supported at public expense, have given the sanction of law to these fundamental studies. All pupils educated at public expense are expected to pursue these studies. Pupils are not generally of an age to determine what is absolutely best for themselves, nor will wise men permit them to take this matter into their own hands. All men, whether in favor of graded schools or not, will admit the propriety of laying down certain fundamental studies that must be pursued if an education is to be of any value whatever. So far, then, choice is made for the pupil by others, and his course of study is determined to that extent. The right to determine a course of study, whether of greater or less extent, is, as I think, almost universally conceded.

The question at issue, therefore, is confined to the expediency of arranging the order of the selected studies, and of dividing up the work of instruction. To some extent, nature has fixed the order of the most important studies. Reading must come before study of printed books. The natural development of the child's mind also directs to a proper regulation of the order of studies. It will not answer for any one to set himself against the Maker of the child's mind, with any hope of success. The simple process of counting pebbles, or blocks, or any other concrete objects, must of necessity precede the mastery of conic sections, and no sane man would yield to the whim of any child who might aspire to a knowledge of the laws governing the motions of the heavenly bodies, unless it be attained through the successive steps leading to it.

So far, then, all are agreed—first, as to the propriety of selecting certain studies as the basis of an education; and secondly, as to the absolute necessity of yielding the order of each of these to the nature of the mind of the pupil. Every well arranged course of study must meet with universal approval, so far as the subjects and the order of different departments of the same subject are concerned.

We are left, then, to nothing but the question of the expediency of carrying on several subjects at the same time, and of

division of the work of instruction. Upon the first point, it is clear to my own mind, that a little variety of study is beneficial to the pupil, and so far aids his actual progress. Three studies may be carried along together more successfully, and the three be mastered in less time, than if the mind of the child be confined to one of the three until each is mastered in its turn. Change of occupation is rest often, and change of topic of study will relieve the mind, as every student well knows. The arrangement of several studies to be pursued at the same time is, therefore, to my mind, a wise arrangement. Economy of time and of brain power favors it.

It remains to be considered whether the work of instruction shall be properly divided, or whether one teacher shall take a certain number of pupils of all grades into her room at the same time, thus making each school room in the city a counterpart of the country district school. One thousand children are gathered in a single building. Shall we have twenty classes of fifty each, graded as nearly as possible according to actual attainments, so that the fifty may be taught simultaneously the same things, or shall each room contain fifty unclassified pupils, ranging from the lowest to the highest in attainments, requiring the individual time and attention of the teacher for each of the fifty? Shall twenty teachers in the same building be engaged upon the same work, or shall each devote her time to one twentieth part of the work of all? The general advantages of the division of labor are so well understood that the above questions need no answer. Economy of time and of teaching power demands the gradation.

The incidental advantages of a graded course of study are found in the stimulus given pupils, who are anxious for promotion from grade to grade, and in the opportunity it affords for placing teachers where the greatest benefit may be realized from their labors.

DO OUR PUPILS THINK?

The American habit of reckless haste reveals itself in our schools. Not only are children supplied, at a tender age, with spelling and reading books, arithmetics and geographies, but they are hurried through them before they have half mastered their contents. They are rushed from one study to another, and from grade to grade, repeating, parrot-like, uncomprehended

rules and definitions, but receiving little mental stamina or vigor. Poor children! they "bolt"—if the term may be excused—but can not digest the mental food set before them; and, as a consequence, the mental appetites of too many of them are destroyed. In many of our high schools may be found young men and women who can gracefully inform us—if they chance to be studying Physiology — that the "muscular membrane is composed of many filaments that unite to form fibres, each of which is enclosed in a delicate layer of cellular membrane," and that "bundles of these fibres constitute a muscle." But of the real meaning of what they are saying, many of them have little idea. They can not intelligently define the words used in the definition. They can not even give the substance of it in their own language. Is not such learning a source of weakness, rather than of strength, to the mind? The crowding of the stomach with food which it but partially digests, causes disease and feebleness. Likewise, so it seems to us, the overloading of the mind must be a means of intellectual dyspepsia.

Moreover we can not expect those of our pupils who advance with such haste and with so little thought, to attack, with energy and interest, the knotty problems and difficult subjects which *absolutely require* vigorous brain exercise. Many of them grow weary and faint by the wayside, unable to climb the mountains of difficulty which rise above them.

Teachers agree that these things ought not to be, and yet most of us are too often content with recitations which amount to considerable in the way of show, but which are sadly deficient in real thought and comprehension. Mechanical recitations may be successfully carried on by a mechanical teacher, but they are of little worth.

We are aware that the breaking up of this want of thought is a difficult work for the teacher; but we believe it can, in a great measure, be accomplished. We are confident that mental life may be awakened in our dull pupils. This life may be faint and feeble in its early stages, but it is like the spark which careful, not too vigorous, fanning kindles to a flame. As teachers we need perseverance and skill and more real interest in our work; we need to be sure that our pupils pass over nothing that they do not understand—nothing upon which they do not exercise vigorous, healthy thought. Our progress may be slow—so slow as to be scarcely observable—but it will be sure and real. What matters it if our labor seems in vain? The vanity is only seeming, and we can wait for our reward. N. S. M. D.

Editorial Department.

——We are sure that the contributions in this number will be accepted as an evidence that we are sparing no pains to secure for our pages the most advanced views and the ripest experience of the country in school instruction and management. Among our contributors this month are Secretary Northrop, Connecticut; President Alden, New York; Prof. Phelps, Minnesota; Dr. Hill, ex-President of Harvard College; Supt. Pickard, Chicago; and Prof. Greenough, Massachusetts—all among the ablest and most experienced educators of the country. The subjects treated are of practical interest and importance. Considerable prominence is given to arithmetic, but, the papers being short, we let all appear this month. Those presenting the first lessons in number, will be read with profit by all teachers engaged in primary instruction. We have the promise of several excellent articles for our next issue. We are trying to make this journal a live and faithful exponent of American education, and worthy of a *national* circulation.

——We fully agree with Mr. Northrop in the view that earnest study is not necessarily injurious to health. There is nothing, either in reason or statistics, showing that nature requires man to remain a semi-fool, and that he can rise above this condition only by sacrificing his health and shortening his days. On the contrary, the evidence is clear that proper study is conducive to health and longevity; that the development of the soul increases the vital forces of the body. Ten persons die from a want of brain-work to one who dies from an excess of it. The ignorant and indolent do not, as a class, live out half their days. But it should be noticed that it is *proper* study that is salutary. Excessive or premature mental labor is unquestionably injurious to health, and the conditions of study may so violate hygienic laws as to be a fruitful source of physical weakness and disease. Here is the vital, all-important truth. It is the *conditions* and *manner* of study, not study itself, that assail the body. It is the violation of the laws of health, not vigorous thinking, that breaks down students. The reform most urgently needed is in this direction. Let the pupils in our schools have pure air, wholesome food, cheerful and invigorating exercise, an abundance of sleep, suitable clothing—in a word let *the laws of health* be fully observed, and the supposed evil effects of over-study will largely disappear.

——The mind has its natural limit of activity as well as the body, and beyond this it can not be forced with impunity. Hence, as experience shows, a child may be sent to school at too early an age; it may be kept in school too many hours each day; and it may be over-tasked with study out of school

hours. These possibilities give rise to three questions of great practical importance, viz: 1. At what age should children begin to attend school? 2. How many hours should they be confined in school daily? 3. How much time should pupils devote to home study? A full answer to these questions would make a volume, but the results of observation and experience may be briefly stated as follows: 1. Children should not be sent to public schools, as they are now generally conducted, under six or seven years of age. Primary schools, conducted on true Kindergarten principles, may be adapted to younger children. 2. Children under eight years of age should not be kept in school to exceed *four* hours daily—two hours in the morning and two in the afternoon, and each session should be broken by a recess for out-door play. Pupils from eight to ten years of age should not be in school more than five hours daily, and six hours constitute the maximum daily session for any grade of pupils. 3. No out-of-school study should be required of pupils under twelve years of age. Six hours of mental activity are, to say the least, as exhausting as the same number of hours of bodily labor, and six hours of work is conceded to be a high maximum for children under twelve. The home study, required of pupils from twelve to sixteen, should not exceed *one hour;* over sixteen, *two hours.* No young person should be required to devote more than *eight hours* daily to school exercises and studies. We believe that these statements are in harmony with Mr. Northrop's views.

——A FEW years since the poorest public schools were often found in cities and towns, but the introduction of the graded system has made these schools much superior to the ungraded schools in country districts. Moreover, they are under the direction of boards of education, with frequent meetings to consider their interests; they are subjected more or less thoroughly to intelligent supervision; their classification favors the introduction of improved methods of teaching; and the close association of the teachers incites them to professional improvement. As a result of these and other advantages, the progress of graded schools is more rapid than that of the ungraded, and the gap between them is constantly widening. These facts show that among the needs of country schools is their association under one board of management—the adoption of the town or township system.. The old New England plan of giving to each school a separate board of directors, is the prime weakness of country schools in many States. Another need is supervision, which is best met by the county system. But the prime need of country schools is a system of professional instruction and training, which shall reach and bless all classes of teachers. The base of such a system is the township and county institute, holding brief sessions semi-annually, and dealing practically with school instruction and management. Next above should be the normal institute, continuing in session from four to six weeks and presenting a more thorough and systematic course of professional training. The thoroughly furnished and well-endowed normal school should complete the system.

——One of the most serious hindrances to the success of country schools is the multiplicity of exercises claiming the teacher's attention, and this evil is greatly increased by a want of uniformity in text-books. It is surprising that boards of education and school directors do not realize the magnitude of this evil and its consequences. There are hundreds of schools in which one half of the school money is wasted through a diversity of text-books. The schools are thus broken into fragments of classes, and the time of the teacher is largely mis-spent in hearing pupils, in rapid succession, "say off their lessons." Even in Ohio there are many sub-district schools in which from two to five different kinds of text-books in the same branch of study are in use At the recent institute in Gallia county, a teacher stated that he had in his school last winter *seven* classes in geography and *five* classes in arithmetic. It is high time, in our judgment, that the legislative axe was laid at the root of this evil. What is needed is a law making it the *duty* of boards of education to adopt one series of books in each branch of study, and making the use of any other books result in the forfeiture of the teacher's salary. In case any board fails to adopt books, the teacher should be authorized to use the series of which the largest number of copies is in the hands of the pupils, and *no other*, under penalty as above. Give our teachers such a law as this and the evil of a multiplicity of text-books will soon disappear. To correct the evil of a frequent change of books the law might provide that books, when once adopted, shall be used for a term of years unless changed by a three-fourths or unanimous vote of the board.

——We take great pains to adapt our pages to the needs of country schools, and scores of letters received from humble teachers, are an assurance that our efforts are not in vain. A few of our readers would doubtless like to see more articles labeled, "For country teachers," and it is probable that some are disposed to give graded-school teachers far more than their share of the good things monthly provided. There seems to be a prevalent notion that there are two sets of methods of teaching—one for graded and the other for ungraded schools. This is a mistake. All true teaching embodies the same principles, and methods, successful in a graded system, will, if properly used, be also successful in ungraded schools. What is needed is such a *modification* of the method as will adapt it to circumstances. The first step is to understand the method; the second, is properly to use it. There are doubtless many school districts in which there is, as yet, little appreciation of improved methods of teaching, and the introduction of such methods would in many cases meet with disfavor, in some with opposition. Thousands of teachers are not doing half as well as they know how, because they fear that the better way will not be popular. But former teachers have created the very opinions which are now feared, and all that is needed to make better methods popular, is a united effort on the part of teachers. This great reform must begin with them. They must learn what can be done, and then they must have *the courage to do it.* Silent, prudent courage seldom finds a lion in the way, and this quality is needed to take any school out of the ruts.

——THE October number of the *Illinois Teacher* contains a letter from President Edwards, of the Illinois State Normal University, who has just returned from a trip to Europe. He states that the new educational law of Great Britain, which has just received the royal assent, will revolutionize school matters. Hitherto the government has inspected and aided on specified conditions both the elementary and normal schools, but it has assumed no direct control of them. They have been sustained by voluntary contributions and have been managed by committees chosen by the contributors. They have been generally established either in connection with the established church, or in connection with dissenting churches, and hence are sectarian or denominational schools. The government inspectors have usually been men acceptable to the denomination with which the given school is connected. The new law provides for the election of a school board in every borough or parish and in the different divisions of the metropolis, and it is made the duty of such board to furnish the district with all needed school facilities. It is empowered to receive the tuition fees of pupils, the grants made by the government, and, when necessary, it may compel the rating authorities to levy *a tax for the support of the schools.* The board may make by-laws requiring the attendance, with certain specified exceptions, of all children between the ages of five and thirteen years. The schools are made free from ecclesiastical control, and the religious instruction is to be of a non-sectarian character. The teaching of the distinctive tenets of any particular sect is forbidden, and, when the parents desire it, children are excused from the general religious teaching. The members of the board are elected for three years, but, for neglect of duty, the board may be dissolved and a new one appointed by the National Department, called "The Committee of the Privy Council on Education." Thus, says Mr. Edwards, educationally England is treading in the footsteps of America.

——SUPT. BATEMAN, of Illinois, has thought it proper to caution the friends of common schools in his State respecting the erection of too costly school-houses. Admitting that "next to an accomplished professional teacher and an intelligent, sympathizing public sentiment, a convenient, well-arranged, and well-furnished school-house is the most essential condition of success," he deprecates "a strong tendency, in many quarters, to build imposing and showy school-houses, entirely disproportionate both to the present pecuniary ability and the present educational needs of the district." "For a district of small population and moderate wealth, to plunge itself into debt from which it can only be extricated by years of harrassing and exhaustive taxation, in order to erect a school-house that shall rival or eclipse, in costly embellishments and architectural display, that of some equally imprudent or more populous and wealthy neighbor, is unwise and reprehensible." This wise and timely caution has an application wider than Illinois. We have seen palatial school-buildings occupied by half-paid teachers, whose just remuneration was forbidden by the heavy building debt resting upon the district. A common and needless extravagance in Ohio school-buildings is the devotion of the third story to a magnifi-

cent hall for public occasions. It is true that every considerable village and town needs a commodious hall for public lectures, concerts, etc., but it is a great mistake to put such a hall in the third story of a school-building. It is too inaccessible, and besides, its general use results in the injury of the building. We have in mind a score or more third-story school-halls which should be divided up into school-rooms. All ordinary school occasions may be provided for by a sliding partition between two school-rooms. We believe in attractive and spacious school-buildings, but we do not counsel the putting of school money, greatly needed for *essentials*, into towers and unused halls.

THE FREEDOM OF THE TEACHER.

In a graded system of schools there must necessarily be much mechanism. Classification is the very basis of the system. Without this the several grades will sustain no proper relation to each other or to the whole—in other words there can be no system. But there can be no complete classification of a system of schools without a course of study with sub-divisions corresponding to the different classes and all following each other in natural sequence. When a course of study is properly arranged, the mastery of the successive portions is a necessary preparation for the next higher. This necessitates a standard of promotion, and this calls for test examinations.

When the pupils in either of the lower classes are sufficiently numerous to occupy several school-rooms, and hence are instructed by several teachers, the progress and attainments of the different sections of the same class must be kept measurably uniform, otherwise they will not be able to come together in the upper grades or grade, as the case may be. This necessitates a degree of uniformity of instruction; and it is just here that *the mechanism of the system touches its very life*, as the history of graded schools, especially in some larger cities, too plainly shows. To secure uniformity of instruction, the course of study is mapped out in its minute details; the time to be devoted to each, the order to be followed, and the method of teaching are specifically prescribed. Thus the functions and rights of the teacher are invaded, and his high office is degraded to the turning of the crank of a revolving mechanism—to the grinding of prescribed grists, in prescribed quantities, and with prescribed fineness. In other words, he is obliged to sink the artist in the operative—to teach by pattern—and this is, of course, a subversion of the true function of the teacher.

This difficulty in the management of graded schools is a matter of great concern Carpets may be woven, clothing made, and stone carved by pattern, but true and fruitful teaching requires an artist's hand, head, and spirit. The teacher is the soul of his methods. They must embody his own conceptions, and he must breathe into them his own inspiration. The true teacher can not be a servile copier or imitator. He must be an earnest seeker for better methods and higher skill. His work must pulsate with the spirit of professional inquiry and progress. To this end, he must have *professional freedom.*

Any interference with this vital condition saps his power and yields ashes instead of fruit.

Hence, it is not enough that our graded schools go through with the forms of a philosophic course of instruction. The knowledge to be taught may be wisely selected and arranged, the successive steps may follow each other in natural order, and the entire mechanism may be so pérfect that the revolving cogs touch each other with beautiful precision, and yet, if the whole be not vitalized by true teaching, the system is a failure. The one essential condition of success is the informing, animating spirit of a corps of free, earnest, progressive, competent teachers; and the more philosophical the system of instruction attempted, the more essential is this condition. A routine of mere book lessons may be conducted by a blind plodder who can turn the crank and tighten the screws, but a system of instruction, having for its grand end the right unfolding and training of the mind and heart, requires the insight, the judgment, the invention, the skill of the true teacher.

We fear that the gravity of this problem in graded-school management, is not duly realized. There seems to be an increasing reliance on prescribed courses and methods of instruction and government—a growing tendency to circumscribe and invade the teacher's rights and freedom. As a result, teachers too often feel that they are employed to go through prescribed forms, like factory girls, and hence, instead of seeking for truer principles and methods, they sink the teacher in the operative, and are content to look to others for methods and directions.

But how is this difficulty to be avoided? How can a requisite uniformity of instruction be secured, and, at the same time, the teacher have adequate professional freedom? We answer that there must, in the first place, be a sharp discrimination made between *results* and *methods*. The teacher may be held responsible for definite results, and yet be left free in his methods. For example, the course of instruction may require the thorough mastery of simple division or the division of fractions, but it should not dictate that long division shall be taught before short division, or *vice versa*, or that division of fractions shall be first taught by reducing the fractions to a common denominator, or by an analysis of the divisor. These are *professional* questions which should be left to the teacher. One teacher may succeed best by the first method and another by the second, and each should be left free to use his judgment and his better power. So in map-drawing. The course of study may properly require map-drawing, with definite results, in the several grades, but the teachers should determine the *method*, and each should be encouraged to find the best. As a teacher we never heeded dictation in these matters.

Another suggestion may be important. A course of study may prescribe a *minimum* amount of work for each school term or year, or as a condition of promotion, but the stated order and time of the subdivisions should be merely *suggestive*. Uniformity should be required only so far as it may be important or necessary. The essential result in a graded system is, that the several classes of the same grade come to the examination for promotion with like attainments. It is not important that the several teachers accomplish the same result day by day, or week by week. Nothing is more ridiculous than the attempt to parcel

out primary instruction and tie it up in daily or weekly prescriptions, like a doctor's doses! This week the class is to take certain facts in geography; to count by twos to fifty (to sixty would be a fearful sin!); to draw the vertical lines of a cube; to learn to respect the aged, etc.! This also suggests the folly of restricting teachers to the work laid down in the course. One teacher can accomplish more than another in the same time, and, if forbidden to widen her instruction, to turn into new fields, the surplus time will be wasted in useless repetition. A scheme of study can only prescribe the *minimum*, the essential course. Parallel with this, or diverging from it, are lines of important knowledge, which the teacher should be free to explore. Moreover, it is in these very diversions from the beaten path, that the most valuable instruction is often imparted. The teacher carries into them an unusual zeal and interest, and his pupils are quickened with a new inspiration.

But the great remedy for the evil under consideration is intelligent, elastic supervision. Supervision is of doubtful worth when it exhausts itself on the mere mechanism of a school system. It must, of course, secure uniformity and system, but these may be attained without grooving the teachers' instruction or sacrificing their professional freedom and progress. An experienced superintendent once remarked to us that his chief business was to keep his teachers out of the ruts. To this end, the superintendent must be qualified to instruct, inspire, and lead teachers in the work of professional improvement, and his supervision must be flexible enough to allow free investigation and experiment. It is true that a corps of teachers, imbued with such an earnest spirit of inquiry and progress, will run in no one's groove, but what is thus lost in uniformity, will be more than made up in vital teaching.

This leads us to say that the great agency for securing needed uniformity of instruction is the thorough training of teachers in both the principles and the methods of their art; and this is an important function of supervision. Successful methods may be evoked; they can not be imposed. They must bear the impress of the teacher's image. We are slow in learning that philosophic methods of teaching are practicable only to those who have some insight into their principles.

THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

The essential qualifications of a teacher are (1) a thorough knowledge of the branches to be taught, and (2) the ability to teach, influence, and govern pupils. The first of these qualifications may be definitely tested by an examination; the latter can be but partially determined in this manner. Hence, in adopting a standard for the issuing of certificates, good scholarship must be made an *essential requisite.*

But what amount and kind of scholarship shall be required? This question can not be settled by the needs of a particular school; the good of the schools *as a whole* must be considered. The teacher's scholarship must be sufficient o teach the specified branches in any school of the grade covered by the cerficate. Nothing less than this will answer, and, hence, a county certificate

must have reference to the needs of our sub-district schools as a class. It may be true that teachers of less scholastic attainments may here and there be successful, but examiners can not make such exceptions a rule of action. To every really skillful and successful teacher that would thus be admitted, the door would be opened to ten incompetent ones. Moreover, a teacher who has not wit enough to master the elements of the common legal branches, is no great blessing to our schools, whatever may be his teaching tact and governing ability.

Our advice to examiners is to adopt a reasonable standard in scholarship, and then firmly maintain it. If it excludes some persons of teaching aptitude and skill, so be it; let them go to work and prepare themselves for their business. A little application and hard study will prove a paying investment. A better preparation will, in the end, secure better wages and larger success. But while we would make fair scholarship an *essential requisite* for a teacher's certificate, we would urge the importance of using reasonable tests. No question should be submitted, which does not relate to an important fact or principle. All mere details and puzzles should be avoided. We think examiners often err here. Instead of selecting questions which will clearly reveal the applicant's knowledge of the elementary and fundamental principles of the subject, they too often take up the very points which have caused *them trouble*. We have examined many series of examination questions which a very fair scholar might fail to answer. We have known cases in which the failure of the large majority of the class examined was more a discredit to the examiners than to the applicants.

But an examination of applicants for a teacher's certificate should not be limited to their scholarship. It should also test their professional knowledge. The examination of a teacher should test his qualifications as a teacher, and these are certainly wider than a knowledge of the several branches of study. The tests should be *both* scholastic and professional, and this is now required by law in several States. "An adequate knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching" was made in 1864 one of the legal requisites for a certificate in Ohio, and we believe that this provision has greatly promoted the professional advancement of the teachers of the State. It is true that the law does not require actual skill or success in teaching, and we judge this to be wise, since neither skill nor success can well be determined by an examination. If the applicant's *knowledge*, both scientific and professional, be properly tested and found adequate, his skill may safely be left for experience to settle. Of course neither skill nor success should be ignored. When their existence is established by observation or trustworthy testimony, they should certainly be considered in determining the grade of the applicant's certificate. We, however, question the propriety of letting either be an offset for defective scholarship.

We regret that we are unable to pursue this subject further. It is one of great importance, and, as it seems to us, the time has come for its careful investigation. We fear that a professional standard is still practically ignored throughout the country.—*Ohio Ed. Monthly for Sept.*

MISCELLANY.

—THE NATIONAL TEACHER does not supersede the *Ohio Educational Monthly*. The TEACHER is a national edition of the *Monthly*, the former being designed for general circulation, and the latter for circulation in Ohio. The miscellany of the *Monthly* is largely devoted to school affairs in Ohio.

—WE send this number of the NATIONAL TEACHER to a large number of School Superintendents, in the hope that its character and aim may induce them not only to subscribe for it, but to commend it to teachers and other active friends of education. Who will lend a helping hand in giving us a national circulation?

—WE propose to send the first three numbers of the NATIONAL TEACHER to a considerable number of live teachers and educators in different parts of the country. We hope that they will not only read these numbers, but that they will also consider whether the general circulation of such a journal would promote the cause of education in this country. We trust that their response will come in the form of subscriptions.

PERSONAL.—Zalmon Richards, Washington, D. C., proposes to re-engage, to some extent, in the institute work. He was one of the first institute instructors in New York and Vermont.

Hon. H. B. Wilson has been appointed State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Minnesota. He succeeds Hon. Mark H. Dunnell, resigned.

Rev. T. Fallows succeeds Hon. A. J. Craig, deceased, as State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Wisconsin.

Miss Mary V. Friend, last year in charge of the Galion High School, O., has accepted a position in the high school of Little Rock, Ark. Salary, $1200.

Miss Sallie Feeman, last year at Toledo, O., has gone into the high school at Davenport, Iowa, at a salary of $800.

—THE *Boston Transcript* states that a lady teacher in the town of Canton, Mass., recently locked several boys, from nine to thirteen years of age, out of the school room for failing to come in when the bell was rung. The miscreants attacked her with stones as she left the house for dinner, injuring her so severely that she lived but a few days. The boys were first sent to the State Reform School, but complaints have been made against them for murder.

SCHOOL VISITORS.—Last spring the board of education of Liberty township, Clinton county, O., appointed a committee of five persons, including two ladies, to visit the schools of the township, examine the classes, and report the results of their observations to the board at the September meeting. We do not know how well the duty was discharged, but we commend the measure to other township boards. The visit of a live committee would be a great event in many sub-district schools.

COLLEGE LIBRARIES.—The National Bureau of Education has been collecting statistics as to the Colleges of the United States. It has reports from 274. There are sixteen Colleges only whose number of volumes exceeds 20,000. Six of these are in New England, one in New York, one in New Jersey, one in Pennsylvania, one in the District of Columbia, one in Virginia, one in North Carolina, one in South Carolina, one in Ohio, one in Michigan, and one in Missouri. The Ohio college is that at Marietta, whose number of volumes is nearly 23,000.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN OHIO.

NORTH-WESTERN OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—Some fifty teachers met at Clyde, Oct. 15th, and organized the North-western Ohio Teachers' Association, to meet once in two months. Supt. M. F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, opened a discussion on Map Drawing, which was participated in by several members. This was followed by a discussion on School Government, opened by Mr. Leland, of Bellevue. A discussion on Moral Instruction was introduced by Mr. Cowdery, and the subject was referred to a committee to report at the next meeting. The subject of Essay Writing was also discussed. The Association adjourned to meet in Sandusky in December.

This Association is the fifth of its kind that has been organized in Ohio the present year. The other four are the North-eastern Ohio Teachers' Association, which has been very successful and useful; the North-Central Ohio Teachers' Association; the Central Ohio Teachers' Association, and the South-western Ohio Teachers' Association. These organizations embrace each the teachers of several contiguous counties, and the meetings are held at different points, quarterly or bi-monthly, and usually on Saturday. It has been feared by some that these local Associations will interfere with the success of the State Association. They are attended, it is true, by live and progressive teachers, and the expense incurred is considerable, but the State Association will not be abandoned by such teachers. If they are obliged to give up either, the local Association will be the loser. A North-western Ohio Teachers' Association was organized in 1864, we believe, and several large and successful meetings were held. For some reason it was given up.

CUYAHOGA COUNTY.—The teachers' institute held at East Cleveland, Sept. 12–16, was one of the largest and best yet conducted in the county. About one hundred and fifty teachers were present, and the instruction gave great satisfaction. The instructors were Hon. B. G. Northrop, of Connecticut; Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, of New York; and Supt. Heywood, of East Cleveland. Evening lectures were given by Mr. Northrop, Rev. J. E. Twitchell, Prof. S. G. Williams, Rev. E. B. Raffensperger, and Rev. James Eells. Mr. Patrick sent us a good list of subscribers.

WOOSTER.—The new high-school building was appropriately dedicated on the 13th of September. The exercises included a historical statement by Hon. George Rex, an address by Hon. Harvey Rice, of Cleveland, and brief addresses by Hon. M. Welker, Gen. A. Wiley, and Prof. L. Firestone. The *Republican* pronounces the building "almost perfect" in its architectural appearance, interior arrangements, finish, heating apparatus, ventilation, furniture, etc., and adds: "If the educational usefulness of the high school matches the completeness of its every appointment, its influence on the intellectual future of our city will be marked and powerful."

MARIETTA COLLEGE.—The number of students in this College is about twenty-five per cent. greater than last year, and the increase in the preparatory Department, which has now a commodious building, is still more. The prizes for the college year 1869–70, have been awarded as follows: CLASS OF 1871—*First prize*, $30, C. E. Walton, Cincinnati; *second*, $15, A. A. Ferris, Battle Creek, Mich., and $15, T. J. Hujus, Long Reach, W. Va. CLASS OF 1872—*First prize*, $30, J. L. Davis, Thurman, O.; *second*, $15, D. McKay, Belpre, and $15, T. A. Wakefield, Harmar. CLASS OF 1873—*First prize*, $40, W. B. Payne, Pine Grove; *second*, $20, J. Gaylord, Norfolk, Conn.

WOOSTER UNIVERSITY.—This institution was formally dedicated and opened on the 6th of September. The exercises consisted of an address by Rev. Dr. Robinson, of Ashland, President of the Board of Trustees; the inaugural address of President

Lord; and an address by Hon. John Sherman. A large audience was present, and the interest manifested was an assurance that the work, so auspiciously begun, will be crowned with success. The present Faculty is constituted as follows: Rev. Willis Lord, D.D., President; O. N. Stoddard, LL.D., Professor of Natural Sciences; W. H. Jeffers, A. M., Professor of Ancient Languages; S. J. Kirkwood, A. M., Professor of Mathematics; and A. T. Fullerton, A. M., Professor of the English Language and Literature and Rhetoric. Other professorships will be established when needed, as the design is to provide the University with the means and elements of the broadest and fullest culture.

Baldwin University.—This institution, located at Berea, has, in addition to a good money investment, a substantial and profitable endowment in the form of forty acres of superior grind-stone quarry. It has not only the right "grit" as a basis, but the departments are managed by thorough and enthusiastic professors. The new President, Rev. W. D. Godman, has made a very favorable impression, and his administration promises to be popular and efficient. At the recent celebration of the founder's birthday, Prof. Schuyler gave, in an address, a biography of Mr. Baldwin, and Prof. Pecrie gave many interesting facts pertaining to the early history of American colleges.

Otterbein University.—The corner stone of the new college building was laid Oct. 5th, with appropriate ceremonies. Thomas D. Crow, Esq., of the School Department, delivered the address. The trustees have decided not to change the location of the institution, the people of Westerville and vicinity having been very generous in their donations. The new building will be better than the one that was burned.

NEW ENGLAND STATES.

Connecticut.—We recently spent two weeks in this State, and were gratified at the evident progress which has been made since our visit the year before. The Normal School, organized in 1869, has now over one hundred students, and is giving promise of high success and usefulness. We have never addressed a more thoroughly trained school, and our lectures have never been more fully "noted." The professional spirit manifested was excellent. The school needs better accommodations, which will soon be provided. We attended three of the "State Institutes"—the first at Westville, near New Haven; the second at Greenville, near Norwich; and the third at Woodstock. The first two were in session but two days each, and were designed to awaken local interest. They were not largely attended by teachers. The third was a four days' institute, and was attended by some 175 teachers and school officers. They were all conducted by Secretary Northrop, under the authority of the State Board of Education, and all expenses were paid from an appropriation made by the State. This is the usual plan of conducting institutes in New England. We every where met with the evidence of the growing popularity of the free school system and its present efficient administration. Secretary Northrop is doing a great work.

Massachusetts.—Secretary White is now conducting his annual institute campaign, and reports the usual attendance and interest. The adoption of the town system, some two years ago, left the State Board no rallying school issue, and hence, the work is quiet. The subject of drawing is now receiving much attention throughout the State.——We had the pleasure of meeting the teachers of Springfield in one of the several fine school buildings which now adorn and bless the city. Supt. Hubbard has done an excellent work, and he has a corps of teachers of which he is justly proud.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES.

NEW JERSEY.—The State Superintendent, in his late report, recommends that th township system be substituted for the district system, now in operation; all the moneys needed for school purposes to be raised by township tax, and managed by a township board of education, instead of by district boards. He believes that all moneys needed for school purposes, (outside of cities,) should be levied by a general State tax, to be equably assessed and the proceeds equably apportioned among the counties and towns.——The fourteen young Japanese noblemen, now in the preparatory department of Rutgers College, are said to be making commendable progress. It is their purpose to complete the regular college course in all its branches, and after making themselves acquainted with the institutions of the country, to return and establish a similar system of education in Japan. Two of them have embraced Christianity, and it is thought others will follow their example before their college course is completed.—*Mich. Teacher.*

NEW YORK.—The Empire State has eight normal schools, with large boards of instruction, all necessary apparatus, and with schools of practice. The school at Albany receives annually from the State $18,000, that at Oswego $16,000, and none receive less than $12,000. Tuition is free to all, and all within the State have their expenses of travel from their homes to the school refunded. The State also makes liberal appropriations for normal instruction in academies and for the support of teachers' institutes.

VIRGINIA.—The free school bill prepared by the State Superintendent, Hon. W. H. Ruffner, was passed, with some amendments, by the Legislature, and the State Board of Education is putting the system into operation. County superintendents have been appointed, and they are busy organizing school districts, appointing school directors, etc. In a recent letter, Gov. Walker declares it to be his belief that "within twelve months from the inauguration of civil government in the State, the school system will be in successful operation in every county, and that another year will suffice for its extension and perfection, so that every child in the commonwealth will be afforded the opportunity of free common-school education." These may be too sanguine words, but great progress may be expected. It is estimated that the school tax ordered will amount to half a million of dollars.

SOUTHERN STATES.

MISSISSIPPI.—The public school system of this State is yet in embryo. A public school law was enacted last winter, providing for the appointment of a State Superintendent, a State Board of Public Instruction, County Superintendents, and County School Directors, and authorizing the county commissioners of each county to levy a tax for the support of schools, etc. These officers have been appointed and the work of organization commenced, but the progress is necessarily very slow; and but few schools will be established during this school year. The law is very defective, making but a scanty provision for the support of schools, and allowing only partial compensation to school officers, consequently little zeal is manifested in the work, and little concern felt for its success. A very large majority of the white population of the State are yet blind to the advantages of a public school system, and many bitterly oppose the attempt at organization. They regard the system as a Northern institution introduced for the purpose of promulgating Northern sentiment. The State Superintendent is an earnest, competent man, and is doing all he can to for-

ward the work; but years will be required to surmount the obstacles in the way and fully develop the system. The State Board of Public Instruction will attempt next winter to secure a revision of the school law, so changing it as to increase their official power and enable them to operate with more efficiency. The private schools of the State, in the main, are in a deplorable condition, for the want of competent teachers and sufficient means to sustain them.

SCOTT COUNTY, MISS.—Mr. George E. Hasie, County Superintendent, writes:—"In localities where the opposition to schools under the new system was very great, many are now sending in petitions for the establishment of 'Free Schools,' with Northern teachers. Many who were opposed to the system, under the wrong idea that mixed schools would be forced upon them, are now its warmest advocates, and, with the many benefits of free schools in consideration, avow themselves earnest supporters of the administration. There are several schools, white and colored, in operation in this county, under the free system, and all are doing finely. An enumeration of educable children in the county is as follows: White males, 932; white females, 936; colored males, 585; colored females, 587."

ALABAMA.—The public school interest of Alabama is very low. The system, established two years ago, has proved nearly abortive for want of means and executive ability to sustain it. The State has a public school revenue of over $700,000, and yet no school buildings are being erected, and only about fifty per cent. of the $320,000 due teachers for services rendered the last school year, has yet been paid. In consequence of the failure to pay the full salaries of last year, very few teachers will re-engage this fall, and only a few public schools have been opened. There are prosperous private schools, however, in all the larger towns of the State. Huntsville, in particular, supports some very good schools, several of which deserve more than a passing notice. A normal school of 150 pupils, conducted by Mrs. Wallace, assisted by Prof. A. G. Smith, is an institution of considerable merit, and is destined to accomplish a good work for Northern Alabama. There is in the place a colored normal school also, with about 120 pupils, of which Mrs. Harrington, an able and zealous teacher, is principal. A class of fifteen to twenty will graduate from this school next spring, and immediately engage in teaching. An effort will be made, at the next session of the Legislature, to secure a revision of the school law, and increase the public school means and facilities. We believe that there is educational spirit enough in Alabama to make the free-school system a success.

ARKANSAS.—Mr. O. F. Russell, superintendent of the city white schools of Helena, writes: "We are endeavoring to grade our schools and make them as efficient as possible. Last year, the first of the system, we enrolled, and taught with three teachers, 233 pupils, of all degrees of advancement, from the most primary to those prepared to enter college. Can you cite me to anything that has been published which will furnish assistance in grading and organizing a school to meet the demands of 350 pupils? We have been making considerable educational progress here within the past year, having organized a teachers' institute for Phillips county, which holds semi-annual sessions of a week. The first was held during the last Christmas holidays, enrolling about 25 teachers; the last was held the week beginning on July 4th, and enrolling about 75 teachers. Both sessions were exceedingly interesting, and the greater attendance of the last session shows a very flattering advance. There are quite a number of excellent teachers in our county, and our free school system is becoming almost universally acceptable to the people, though at first it was greatly opposed."

NORTH CAROLINA.—As required by the Act to provide for a system of Public Instruction, ratified April 12th, 1869, the Board of Education, and the Supt. of Public

Instruction, proceeded to organize a system of Public Schools throughout the St[illegible] The report of the Superintendent, Hon. S. S. Ashley, presented November 1st, 18[illegible] shows what progress has been made. In the six months which the report cov[illegible] much has been accomplished, though the work has been for the most part of a p[illegible] paratory nature. The school law has been circulated; county examiners have be[illegible] appointed; and a census of children between the ages of six and twenty-one y[illegible] has been taken. The whole number of school children in the State as reported, [illegible] 330,581, of whom 106,766 are colored. The number of school houses is 1,906; [illegible] these 178 are characterized as good, and 685 as bad. The sum of $165,290.50 h[illegible] been apportioned among the several counties, being about fifty cents per census chil[illegible] The pecuniary condition of the State did not allow a larger appropriation f[illegible] 1869, but it is hoped that "better times will meet with more liberal devisings." Th[illegible] report contains an account of the colleges, academies, and educational associations [illegible] the State, and also, a very interesting special report by Rev. J. W. Hood, whic[illegible] gives a satisfactory view of the educational work among the colored population. Considering the difficulties in his way, the State Superintendent is to be congratulated upon his success, and the progress of school matters generally.—*Am. Ed. Monthly.*

TENNESSEE.—Reports to the Bureau of Education represent that the failure of the Legislature of Tennessee to make proper provisions for free schools, will result in the extinction of the free public school system in that State. It is believed that ere long educational facilities will be confined to private academies, and the free schools that can be supported out of the Peabody Fund, and by benevolent associations. Colored schools are being rapidly organized throughout the State, the farmers and planters taking great interest in their establishment.—*Mich. Teacher.*

CENTRAL NORTHERN STATES.

ILLINOIS.—The renomination of Hon. Newton Bateman to the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction is a recognition of the value of his services in the important position. With the exception of two years—1863 and 1864,—when the office was filled by Hon. J. P. Brooks, Mr. Bateman has been Superintendent since January, 1859. During that time the school system of the State has been revised and matured, and the fact that many of its features have been adopted by other States is sufficient evidence of its excellence. The State has, during that time, grown to an educational position among the States scarcely second to any other in point of influence. Much of what has been done has been due to the energetic labors of the men in the rank and file of the profession throughout the State; but to say that the greatest honor belongs to the leader is only recognizing the fact every where practically acknowledged, that the character of any enterprise is determined by those at its head. It is to be hoped that during the coming term the Legislature will supply the office with needed aid, so that the Superintendent can acquaint himself more thoroughly with our school system in its practical workings.—*Ill. Teacher.*

CHICAGO.—The rule respecting the salary of absent teachers has been so amended that teachers absent for other cause than sickness, forfeit their salary during absence. If absent for sickness or death of some near relative, they forfeit from their salary a substitute's pay, for the time of such absence, but in no case does the salary continue more than two weeks. Teachers are prohibited from receiving any presents purchased by contributions from pupils, on pain of immediate dismissal. Hereafter when visiting schools, teachers are to visit divisions of the same grade as their own for the purpose of observing different modes of instruction and discipline, whe[illegible]

rected to do so by the superintendent, or by the principal of their respective schools. Pupils falling below the standard of admission to their grade, are to be put into the next lower *grade*, but may be permitted to regain their lost position within one month, if their scholarship warrants it.—*The Schoolmaster.*

MISSOURI.—A county superintendent writes:—"We have just closed our teachers' institute, which was attended by about a dozen true teachers, and half a dozen of the other kind. About the same number of the latter class remained at home or in their schools, probably in happy ignorance of the fact that they needed, or were capable of farther improvement. The whole number—dead and alive—in the county is about 24. We are making visible progress. Light is breaking in upon the dark places, and free schools are springing up here and there where such institutions have heretofore been unknown."

ST. LOUIS.—The salaries of principals of first class schools in St. Louis have all been fixed at $2,000, irrespective of sex. Two ladies have their salaries raised from $1,400 to $2,000 by this action of the board of education.

NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

MINNESOTA.—The late annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association was held the last week in August, in the new Normal School building at Mankato. The large and airy rooms, gratuitously furnished, with all the lesser conveniences at hand that indicated a readiness for immediate work, were a luxury not always enjoyed at these annual gatherings. The gentlemen of the local committee had done their part well, and they deserve the thanks of the Association. The convention continued in session two days, about two hundred delegates being present. The occasion was one of special profit and interest to all in attendance, and, doubtless, to that part of the State where it assembled. The exercises were exceedingly valuable, because they were practical and sufficiently varied to meet the demands of a general canvass of our State system of education. We never listened to a broader range of discussion in a single educational convention of two days sitting.—*Minn. Teacher.*

NEBRASKA.—Since the formation of a department of public instruction, the Hon. S. D. Beals has been a faithful worker in organizing and completing their system. The Republican convention has nominated Mr. J. M. McKenzie, of Nebraska City, to succeed him. Mr. McKenzie is well and favorably known in the State as a successful normal teacher and institute worker; well understands the wants of the State, and will, if elected, do much to build up and carry forward the educational interests of this field.—*The Schoolmaster.*

WEST VIRGINIA ITEMS.

TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.—State Supt. Williams continues his institute campaign with varying success, but always with important results. Every where much good is accomplished—teachers are improved, stimulated, and encouraged, and the free school system is vitalized and strengthened. We doubt whether any equal appropriation from the Peabody Fund has accomplished as much good as the $1000 devoted to this purpose. The State should now help by doubling this appropriation, thus enabling the State Superintendent to hold an institute next year in every county.

BERKELEY COUNTY.—We assisted the State Superintendent in conducting an institute at Martinsburg the first week of October. Between thirty and forty earnest teachers were present, and the instruction fell on good ground. A strong effort was made to interest the citizens of the place, but they were generally disposed to let this innovation severely alone. But few could be induced to attend even the evening meetings. Prof. Kidd gave instruction in elocution, with two evening entertainments, and Capt. Gould gave instruction in arithmetic. Rev. E. L. Lacy, the County Superintendent, is a gentleman of ability and culture, and an earnest advocate and worker in the free school cause.

UPSHUR AND BARBOUR INSTITUTES.—Profs. Colegrove and Woodruff held an institute in Upshur county. Quite a number of teachers were in attendance, and were well pleased. Prof. Colegrove was liked, and Prof. Woodruff made many friends. Capt. Gould, Superintendent of Upshur county, is wide awake and efficient, one of the very best county superintendents in the State. The same instructors held an institute at Phillippi, in Barbour county. The attendance was not so large. A. D. W.

BOOK NOTICES.

THE ELEMENTS OF NATURAL HISTORY. By SIDNEY A. NORTON, A. M. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This book is a late addition to the Eclectic Series, and like all of its immediate predecessors, in mechanical and artistic execution, is a beautiful book. In writing it, the author evidently intended to make it available as a text-book. In doing so, while he desired to make it attractive and fresh, by the introduction of the latest methods and inventions, it was not his design to neglect cardinal principles or time-honored theories simply because "a former generation of pupils studied them." His consistency is exhibited in his adherence to the title "Natural Philosophy," but in the very first sentence in his book he declares that the work is the result of many years' experience in teaching "Physics." Would not this be a better title for the book than the one used?

A somewhat hurried examination has led me to believe that the author gives us a really valuable work on this most attractive branch of Natural Science. The following are a few of the points which attracted my attention:

He does well to throw away the old classification of the subject, and include under one general head the Mechanics of Solids, of Liquids and of Gases. The subject of Friction is more carefully and thoroughly treated than in any other school text-book with which I am acquainted. Galileo's simple and elegant experiment showing the acceleration of motion by gravity, instead of the methods contrived by Atwood and Morin or Poncelet, is given, the author very properly observing that the latter methods are of little value without the very expensive apparatus for illustration. The discussion of the Pendulum is valuable and exhaustive, that is as far as may be in a book for students with but little mathematical knowledge. In his treatment of Momentum and *vis viva*, the author has been unfortunate in his use of the terms quantity and intensity of force, applying quantity to *vis viva*, and intensity to momentum. The law for terrestrial gravity is not correctly stated; indeed, it is a rare thing to find a text-book on Physics in which this is not the case. It is somewhat perplexing to the student to find the *fact* of the variation in weight of bodies contrary to the *law* as he learns it in his text-book.

A feature which is worthy of commendation is the introduction of a separate discussion of the Theory of Undulation, preparatory to the treatment of Heat, Light, and Electricity. Under the head of Acoustics, I have only the fault of too great

brevity to find. Many things of interest are missed from this portion of the subject, and especially is it to be regretted that there is no description whatever of the organ of hearing. What the author has done in Acoustics, he has done well. Attention might be particularly called to the Theory of Musical Chords, &c. In his remarks as to the velocity of sound, he is careful to notice that all sounds do not travel at absolutely the same velocity. This is a fact well worthy our attention. It is well known that the sound of thunder will travel faster than gentler sounds. The author mentions that it has been noticed that the report of a cannon would sometimes be heard before the command "fire." The only instance of this of which I have ever heard, was remarked by Capt. Parry in some observations made in his second voyage. The stations were so near that the human voice could be heard, and the remark was that the officer's command could be heard about three-eighths of a second after the report of the cannon. Prof. Airy remarks that the acceleration arising from the greater displacement of the particles could not possibly have amounted to 200 feet; and he seems to consider the phenomenon entirely physiological. Hu says that when a violent or sudden noise is heard, it is preceded by the perception of a shock throughout the bodily frame. This shock must have been mistaken for the sound itself. We heartily commend the author's remarks as to the insulation of Lightning Conductors, but apprehend that his recommendation that several points should project from various places on the roof, "all connected so as to form one or more conducting systems," might be so construed as to lead to dangerous consequences. One of the commonest sources of danger from lightning is the custom of having two or more points *attached to one rod;* but this is no argument against having many rods. One of the most valuable features of the book is at the close, in the shape of a list of exercises and problems calculated to familiarize the pupil with the subject matter. This, in the hands of thorough teachers, will prove to be one of the most excellent things about this excellent book. T. M. C.

CORNELL'S PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.—Accompanied with Nineteen Pages of Maps, a Great Variety of Map Questions, and One Hundred and Thirty Diagrams and Pictorial Illustrations: and Embracing a Detailed Description of the United States. By S. S. CORNELL, Corresponding Member of the American Geographical and Statistical Society. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Here, at last, is the long promised, and crowning book, of the Cornell Series—the Physical Geography! The first excellence that secures our attention, is its convenient size—a medium quarto of 104 pages. It is easily handled, and its contents can be mastered in the time usually devoted to this subject. On opening the book, we first notice the maps and the illustrations. Of the former, it is sufficient to say that they are VON STEINWEHR'S. They are large—occupying each the upper three-fourths of two pages, with map questions below—numerous, and unusually bold and clear. The illustrations are also numerous, pertinent, and beautiful. The typography is excellent. As we have not had time to read much of the text, we can give no opinion of its accuracy, but a somewhat careful examination shows that the usual subjects are treated in a methodical and teachable manner. We commend the work to the examination of teachers.

FIRST LESSONS IN MENTAL AND WRITTEN ARITHMETIC. On the Objective Method. Edited by SAMUEL D. BARR, A. M. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

This is an attractive book, but its beauty is not its only or chief excellence. It is the result of an earnest and conscientious effort to present a *natural* system of teaching. To this end, mental and written exercises are combined, and the pupil is led by natural steps to definitions, principles, and rules. We notice many excellent features, and several that we would change. Is not the pupil taken too soon into the theory of numbers? We welcome this work as a departure from the old system, in the right direction.

THE CRITTENDEN COMMERCIAL ARITHMETIC AND BUSINESS MANUAL. Designed for the Use of Merchants, Business Men, Academies and Commercial Colleges. By JOHN GROESBECK, Principal of Crittenden's Philadelphia Commercial College. Tenth edition, revised and enlarged. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1870.

This work, as its title indicates, is specially designed for business schools and counting-houses. It gives a full explanation of commercial customs and regulations, and those calculations, which have a special application to business, are made prominent. A characteristic feature is the attention given to the short, labor-saving methods in actual use in business. Over one hundred pages are devoted to business forms and practical business information. If the work was designed for school use, we should regret its lack of method and conciseness, but it seems to us an excellent business treatise. It is neatly published.

UNIVERSITY SERIES: Educational and Scientific Lectures, Addresses, and Essays. New Haven: Charles C. Chatfield & Co.

This is a series of neat pamphlets of uniform style and price—25 cts. each. The first three numbers are on our table. They contain respectively Prof. Huxley's Essay on the Physical Basis of Life; Prof. Barker's Lecture on the Correlation of Vital and Physical Forces; and Dr. Stirling's Lecture on Protoplasm, being a masterly review of Huxley's essay.

ELEMENTS OF SURVEYING AND LEVELING; with Descriptions of the Instruments and Tables. By CHARLES DAVIES, L.L.D., Author of a Full Course of Mathematics. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1870. Price $2.50.

Many years ago we "went through" Davies's Elements of Surveying, and we find that enough of our uncertain knowledge remains to enable us to recognize the old treatise in the new and much more attractive one, now before us. Most of the changes are decided improvements, and the additions are important and valuable. Among the additions are the sections on Railway Curves, Section Leveling, and Mining Engineering—subjects of great practical interest. The work is worthy of the widely known Series of Mathematics to which it belongs.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

CORNELL'S PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

LOCKYER'S ELEMENTS OF ASTRONOMY. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

WILLSON'S INTERMEDIATE FIFTH READER. Harper & Brothers, New York.

FRENCH'S MENTAL ARITHMETIC. Harper & Brothers, New York.

HARPER'S SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES (Scott's). Harper & Brothers, New York.

HUTCHISON'S PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. Clark & Maynard, New York.

NORTHEND'S TEACHER'S ASSISTANT. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

CLARK'S NORMAL GRAMMAR. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

SMITH'S CONDENSED ETYMOLOGY. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

SPENCER'S GREEK PRAXIS. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., New York.

CROSBY & SUDLOW'S FIRST LESSONS IN LANGUAGE AND COMPOSITION. Griggs, Watson & Day, Davenport, Iowa.

WONDERS OF ACOUSTICS. Illustrated Library of Wonders. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

——WE will send either the MONTHLY or the TEACHER and the *Pennsylvania School Journal* to the same address one year for $2.50. The regular price of each magazine is $1.50. The *Journal* is now edited by Hon. J. P. Wickersham.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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THOUGHTS ON PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.—I.

BY DELIA A. LATHROP.

"To see, to understand, to remember, is to *know*." There is a deeper significancy in this quotation from Rubens than appears at first sight. Let us mark the consecutive steps to knowledge. First, "to see", that is, to apprehend by the senses; second, "to understand", or so to connect these perceptions with the objects that occasioned them and with each other, as to produce clearly defined ideas; and third, "to remember", to store away these ideas in such an orderly and careful manner that, whenever needed for use, they can be produced promptly, and made to subserve the desired purpose;—*this*, and nothing *less* than this, the Flemish artist considered *knowledge*.

I am quite of the opinion that we, as teachers, are often less successful than we believe our conscientious efforts merit, because we disregard this so simply yet clearly stated law of sequences; unwittingly requiring those whom we would make wise, first "to remember", and second "to understand"; or first "to understand", and second "to see"; or, possibly, in a foolish haste, have demanded *knowledge* with neither *seeing* nor *understanding*.

No one to-day questions the importance of the teacher's work, and especially that of the primary teacher. It is true, the time has been when, in the zeal for classics and mathematics, the full import of primary instruction was overlooked; but now men of culture, who are so inspired with the spirit of progress that they

are able to read the "signs of the times", and so discover the increasing need of the leavening influence of education upon the masses of men, are looking to primary schools as the conservators of the interests of the state.

The primary school is coming to be set in its proper relations to others of more pretentious names; that is, it is being regarded as the fountain which should receive most careful attention, because of the very unquestionable fact that it gives character to the stream of which it is the source. Confluent streams of influence may modify, but rarely utterly change the habits of thought and action developed in early life.

That the character of primary schools should be well considered, is seen in the fact that they are the schools of the people. It is a startling fact, and one that should have an important bearing in determining methods of primary instruction, that the entire school life of a large majority of our children ends with these schools. But a small per cent. of those who enter them ever reach the high, even the grammar schools. It then becomes a question of vast import, How can we do most for these children in the limited time given us for their school training?

It is certain we can impart, neither are the children competent to receive, but little of all we would have the man and woman know. Evidently, then, our efforts should be mainly directed to putting the child in a way to help himself when he has passed beyond our immediate influence.

This intellectual ability to help one's self is what I understand by mental discipline or mental development. That person is best fitted for life who has, not the greatest array of facts in mind, but the most mental power, in the use of which he can for himself obtain facts. Because this is true, the teacher's work is primarily to educate, to lead out, to unfold the mental faculties; the work of instruction or building into this prepared tenement is, in importance, a secondary one—and any plan of education, which exalts instruction to the *first* place, is radically in error.

It is true, both processes are carried on together, and hold determinate relations each to the other, still the first question of the teacher should be, not what furnishings does the mind of the child require, but what are his mental capacities, and how can they be increased; in other words, the work should be viewed subjectively first, and objectively second.

The fact of a method of education being possible, implies certain fundamental laws or principles of education upon which

this method is based. Axiomatic as many of these now seem to us, owing to our familiarity with them, their discovery and statement has been the work of centuries. One man has bent himself to the study of mind in an attempt to determine and classify its powers; another has "entered into his labors", and, by using the results of his predecessors and pushing his investigations still farther, has deduced its laws of growth; while still another has reasoned from these data to broad principles of education. So to-day, while there is almost everything to doubt in their application, and much unqualifiedly to condemn,—while there is much "philosophy of education", falsely so called, pressed upon us,—no one doubts that we have here and there a finger-post which we recognize as confidently as we do our own intuitions. There is no need to mention names which, in the history of philosophy and philosophical education, are as familiar as our own. Those of Socrates, Aristotle, Lord Bacon, etc., are but synonyms for labor in this direction.

As early as 1620 Amius Comenius wrote, "Instruction must begin with the senses, and not with a verbal description of things." From *inspection* it is that certain knowledge comes. Rousseau, in France, moved by the same spirit which inspired Comenius in Bohemia, wrote, in his polished style, a work advocating teaching from material objects. The writings of both these men were read by Pestalozzi, and they wrought within him an enthusiastic desire to put the doctrines there taught to the practical test. Finding neither law nor theology, for both of which professions he had fitted himself, in accordance with his tastes, he set himself to the working out of his plan. Others had theorized; he would exemplify. His success, at first varied and problematical, at length became unquestioned. Kings were his patrons and princes his pupils. The nations of Europe were represented in his classes. Those taught by him hastened to spread his fame. Numerous normal schools sprang up in Central Europe for the professional training of teachers in accordance with the educational principles stated by him. Throughout Central and Western Europe systems of education were simplified; schools were made accessible to the lower classes; and probably to no single man does Europe to-day owe more for her superior educational advantages.

Let us examine some of these principles at the bar, of which all "methods" claiming to be *natural ones*, stand justified or condemned.

"All true education begins with the senses." The reasonableness of this doctrine appears in the fact that the child can not make drafts upon his intellectual treasure house; his imagination can not create; he can not compare facts and judge of relations; can not even recall and represent to you, until he has accumulated some capital upon which to operate. The elements of all objective knowledge come through the senses. Knowledge so obtained we call perceptions, and the faculty of mind exercised in obtaining perceptions, we call the perceptive faculty hence, we say, "The perceptive grade of study comes first."

Since the senses are the organs of the perceptive faculty, the teacher's early work is to get broadly open the child's eyes, ears, every avenue to his mind, and to keep these highways of travel in the best possible condition. She must allow no broken sluices or impassable bridges to exist to prevent the transit of ideas. She must see that no heavily freighted vehicle, by an unfortunate trip, discharges its contents just where it becomes an obstruction rather than an acquisition. She is to be ever vigilant to block a wheel or lend a shoulder as she sees necessary to advance; in short, she is to be the intellectual street-commissioner on these six radiating highways to see that access to the metropolis is always easy and safe. Her constant care is required to prevent her pupils having eyes and seeing not, ears and hearing not; that is, unused senses. Plainly no subject is a proper one for primary instruction which does not appeal directly and constantly to the senses. The subjects abound which may thus be taught, and every lesson has the charm of a picture-book; even more, for every one is instinct with life, and to be a real, living existence is, to a child, no indifferent matter.

Another principle in accordance with the spirit of which education should be carried forward is, "*Do not tell a child what, with proper effort, he can find out for himself.*" Having introduced to your pupil the subject or object concerning which you wish him to learn something, do not proceed to *instruct* him; that is, to *lecture* him about it. Contrive to educe as much as possible from him. To remove obstructions, to sub-divide difficulties, to solve doubts when they arise, to confirm in correct opinions when expressed, to assist in the correct expression of ideas when obtained, is the teacher's work. Let the child in the use of his own powers and by reference to what he already knows, arrive at his ideas, and then they *are* his. If you tell him what he wishes to know,—rather, what you wish him to know, he is altogether in-

different nineteen out of twenty times,—he takes his knowledge upon authority as absolutely as if he read from a book: but little more than an exercise of the memory is accomplished.

You, by patient thought, have evolved an idea which you have never heard nor seen expressed. You recollect what a sense of satisfaction, of *power*, took possession of you. That idea, though simple enough in itself, was a source of greater joy to you than the beauties of the poets. This is not the result of unjustifiable pride, but one of the purest instincts of our nature. Our children of the brain are very dear to us. Why should the child be less susceptible to the rare delights of discovery than we?

I said with the idea is born a sense of power; and the conscious possession of this makes the child eager for another intellectual effort, for a consciousness of power to do induces to effective action. Habits of observation and independence of thought are important results obtained, as well as the cultivation of a self-reliance, in the use of which he will help himself in future.

We ought not to doubt Miss Peabody, who says a child of eight years, who had gone over Dr. Hill's "Geometry for Beginners" with "practical provings", within two months, invented a self-moving doll's carriage that would give the doll a ride of ten feet! But to follow a "chain of reasoning" written down in a book, as a blind man feels his way across a bridge by keeping his hand upon the rail, is one thing: to work out the demonstration of a proposition with "practical provings", is quite another, and as different a thing as walking by sight, or, being blind, to follow a leading string with an unreasoning cur as guide.

That teacher, other things being equal, is most successful who so hides herself in her subject that her pupils suppose they find out everything for themselves. A reliance upon their own intellectual ability is thus developed which leads them confidently to grapple with difficulties, and the *will makes the way.*

A little six year-old recently observed a member of his family making some mathematical calculations which he concluded were tedious and perplexing. "Now," said he, addressing the lady, "if you were a school teacher, you would n't have to do that, would you? At school we find out everything the teacher wants done, and she does nothing but ask us!" At just this point, however, the untrained and inexperienced teacher finds more difficulty than perhaps at any other. How to do nothing but *just ask* the children, requires great tact, much study, and patient practice.

PLAIN CRITICISMS ON OUR SCHOOLS.

The writer, a teacher of experience, has spent the past school year chiefly in traveling in Ohio, and his business has led him to visit the union schools in many of our county-seats and incorporated villages. It is not in a spirit of fault-finding, but with an earnest desire to correct what is wrong, that he presents the following criticisms to his old associates and co-laborers:

I. There is apparent a lack of *thoroughness* of instruction in the *common branches.* This is manifestly the case in the senior and graduating classes. I have seen more than one class, to graduate at the close of the term, on the recitation seat trying to analyze and parse quite plain sentences. The truth was not only evident to me, but was admitted by the teacher, that scarcely *one in ten* of the members of these classes was able correctly to analyze and parse *a simple, plain sentence.* Their exhibitions in arithmetic were scarcely more flattering. Indeed, several members of these classes in schools of high reputation have said to me complainingly, that they had never been allowed to go further than interest in arithmetic. I have looked over at least *sixty* graduating essays and orations before they had been criticised, and the exhibition of spelling and punctuation would have done discredit to a properly trained intermediate class; indeed it was disgraceful to *somebody*, whether student, teacher, or superintendent, I pretend not to say. I found more than one teacher expressing deep mortification and chagrin at this condition of their classes, declaring their conviction that the class was wholly incompetent to graduate, and saying that they had repeatedly so informed the superintendent; but that his reply was to this effect: "Put them through in some way. We must have a graduating class for its influence on the public."

Again, I heard several graduating essays read upon the platform whose *originals* I had perused. The essays read scarcely bore a *semblance* to the originals. Upon inquiry I found that the criticism of the teacher had amounted to the re-writing of the essays.

Now I have been wont to think, and I can not well get over that old-fashioned idea, that our public schools should teach their pupils correct spelling, fair writing, a good degree of theoretical and practical arithmetic, and, at least, a *fair* knowledge of our own language. Our schools profess to do this and a great deal more. In doing, or attempting to do, the latter, they fail in

the former and far more important part of their work. I look upon a large number of these "graduates" as sent out into the world *cheated*, perhaps not so much by *intention* as by *negligence*, but nevertheless *cheated*. If I am right in the cause of this, it is found in the prevalent disposition among principals and superintendents to make every year a *grand display*, and make the public believe that something *wonderful* has been accomplished. As a local superintendent, I am free to say that I would not graduate a class of the kind named, if I never had a graduating class.

Closely connected with this is another, the very common custom of late in many schools of allowing the graduating class, during the last term of the year, to attend school regularly or irregularly as suits their convenience; in other words, releasing the members from the ordinary rules upon this subject, by which the balance of the school is still holden. I have seen the bad influence of this liberty upon the general good order and punctuality of more than one school that I had previously found in excellent condition in these respects. My associates must pardon me, if I regard this practice as an *aping* of the last term of college life, and again cheating the graduate with the illusion that he is something more than he really is.

II. In the subordinate departments of union schools, which I visited even more than I did high schools, I found many excellent teachers who seemed to be working under an artificial restraint. The programme or course, marked out for them by the superintendent, seemed to leave little if any chance for the play of that *tact* and *aptitude*, which I regard as a natural qualification, and whose exercise is essential to the well-being of a school. They told me that they were given just so much to do, and it must be done in *just such a way*. No matter how fertile the teacher's brain might be in methods and appliances, no matter if she could do the same work in half the time and far more thoroughly, she must obey the manipulation of the *machine*. In fact I did not know just what to call this kind of teaching, until I read the doings of the late meeting of the State Association. Some one there called it "machine teaching", the superintendent turning the "crank." That hits the case exactly in my mind, and we may ridicule it or disbelieve it as we will, the truth is our union schools are full of it, and its exhibition to an intelligent visitor would be painful, were it not ridiculous.

III. Some superintendents are becoming tyrannical. I am orry to believe this, but my observation during the year forces

this conclusion upon me. And just here let me say, that I have occupied a superintendent's position too long to wish to see it deprived of any of its just and legitimate powers and duties. Boards of education in numerous instances seem to have abandoned the duties imposed upon them by law, and have thrown supreme power into the hands of the superintendent. In fact I think the latter superintend the boards quite as much as they do their schools. I am led to doubt whether many even intelligent men upon these boards, know any more of the actual working of their schools than the most illiterate person in the community.

I will only note one form of the development of this tyranny. A school term approaches its close. The teachers, mostly ladies, have labored arduously, faithfully, and to full satisfaction during its passing weeks and months. They look forward to a week's needed rest and relaxation in that "dearest spot of earth", *home*, in the society of parents and brothers and sisters. Their wages, although perhaps fair, have not allowed them to employ milliners and dress-makers by the year. In many instances, their board has cost them more than a moiety of their salary. Their wardrobes and other "fixins" perhaps demand a week's special attention. But the superintendent dashes all their expectations to the ground by gravely telling them at the last meeting, that there is to be a teachers' institute so and so during vacation, and unless they attend as members, they will not be reëmployed as teachers. He *means* this, and, whether he has said any thing to the board or not, he knows that he can induce them to ratify his dictum. No matter what amount of education a teacher may have had, nor how much of her earlier years she has spent in the seminary and the normal school, nor what are her wages or her grade of school, the order is inexorable; the teacher must go or lose her place, and this, too, though the institute teaching, however well intended, may be nothing less than a bore to a well disciplined student.

The result of this tyranny is a flattering, often sickening, fawning of the teacher around the superintendent, exaggerated representations of his good qualities in community and a concealment of the bad, while down deep in the heart of the teacher there is an utter contempt for him, which nothing but the fear of losing her place suppresses. I am pursuaded that if many superintendents know the true feeling entertained for them by some of their best teachers—in other words, if they could see themselves as they are seen by those most intimate with them,—they would

be surprised and perhaps uncomfortable. My estimate of the good accomplished by a *constrained* or *hired* attendance upon an institute, is infinitessimal. As a superintendent I was accustomed to say, that I neither wanted nor would have in my corps, if I could help it, a teacher of either of the two classes. I have discovered no reason for changing my mind. I believe those who know me will say that few have given stronger evidence of a high estimate of a good institute, few have done more in proportion to their means to sustain them and encourage inexperienced teachers to attend, but when I have represented their advantages to my teachers, *I chose* to leave them *entirely* free in their action.

IV. The above remark, using the words "hired attendance", brings to my mind a criticism upon the action of many boards of education. It seems to have become quite customary in certain localities to commence paying teachers regular wages one or two weeks in advance of the actual opening of the schools, provided the teachers use the time in attending an institute. Where boards find any legal warrant, even by implication, for such a use of the school money, I can not tell. I think it would be difficult to show. Upon the same principle, a school board may take any teacher or any number of teachers, and pay their expenses a year or longer at any normal school or seminary in or out of the State..

V. Being utterly ignorant, or supposing myself to be, respecting the "new light" system of "object lessons", I made it my special care during my travels to become thoroughly posted upon it. A., B. and C. of my old associates, still in the field, and whom I shall ever profoundly respect, were writing, speaking, and growing *hoarse* in laudation of this kind of teaching, and I concluded that I must be away back in the rear of this grand army of the advance. I resolved quietly to work my way forward. During the year I heard or witnessed more than a hundred lessons, including several given by teachers direct from Oswego. I made it a point usually to ask for one in all the schools I visited. Judge of my astonishment when I found that these lessons were precisely like those given to me when a lad of six to ten years, in the old "land of steady habits." Yes, I remember, that good lady teacher, Miss Logan, took out her pocket-knife, and "went through" it to the vast amusement and instruction of us urchins around her. I am quite sure she had never been to Oswego, nor were such exercises known then as "object lessons." I was just concluding that my old honored

friends were monomaniacs upon this subject, when the perusal of the doings of the late various educational associations disclosed to me that their cases were not *all* hopeless, and that in all probability the malady would be entirely removed in one or two years.

These criticisms are written with the best motives, and all I ask for them is a candid and earnest consideration.

MORE ANON.

PRISON REFORM.

The meeting of the Prison Reform Congress, recently held in Cincinnati, was in many respects one of the most important gatherings that has ever taken place in any country. The questions discussed were some of the most important and difficult that can engage the attention of siciologists; and, it is but fair to say, they were met and grappled with in the most catholic spirit. The papers presented were from the foremost thinkers on the specialties treated of, both at home and abroad; and the discussions following them were, in the main, able and pointed. The speakers spent no time in preliminary remarks of a nature personal to themselves, but struck directly at the heart of their theme.

A few of the participants in these discussions, it is true, were inclined "to gush" in their rhetoric, and to be visionary in their views; but while one may have felt inclined to smile at these weaknesses, he could not but respect the great-heartedness and earnestness that prompted them. Mankind will be slow in coming to the conclusion that the original Eden is to be found on our Reform Farms, or that the purest and most hopeful classes of our community are hedged in by penitentiary walls; but they will respect all efforts which, while they make no attempt to obliterate the broad distinctions between vice and virtue, tend to ameliorate the severities of the criminal's imprisonment, or to make him feel that he is not altogether dead to hope and society.

But when the hard-headed (not hard-hearted), practical men, whose lives had been spent in prison management, came to speak, one was forced to the sad conviction that of the class of criminals committed to our penitentiaries for the higher grades of crime, but few ever regain their lost places in virtuous society.

It has been said that of every hundred confirmed drunkards, ninety-nine are sure to die drunkards. The proportion probably is not much smaller for hardened criminals. Reformatory institutions for the young, guilty of the lower grades of crime and misdemeanors only, are doubtless reclaiming a very considerable number of their inmates, and may, by the increase of wisdom that will be brought to their management through such discussions as have taken place in this Prison Congress, save a yet larger portion.

But the discussions of the Congress are not of special value only; they are full of significance to those engaged in the general field of education. They bring to the attention of educators with powerful emphasis a question that will not down: How shall our public school system be rendered more effective in preventing our youth from becoming criminals? How shall the great schools of vice in our towns and cities be broken up, and their pupils be transferred to schools wherein the influence shall be on the side of virtue?

We unhesitatingly avow our belief that there is but one means of doing this—that of *compulsory education*. Let us no longer dally with half-way measures, but like true and earnest men strike at the root of the difficulty at once. Educators in this country have been too weak and timid. They have not dared fearlessly to deal with great principles. The question under discussion is not so much how we shall make our penitentiaries and reformatory institutions better, but what we shall do to make them unnecessary, or, at least, to reduce their number to the lowest possible minimum. We shall always, under the most favorable circumstances, find it more difficult to reclaim one criminal than to preserve a thousand from becoming such. We must open schools everywhere; must plant them in the most desolate regions of vice in our great cities, and then reach out the strong arm of the law to compel parents to give their children an opportunity of learning. If they prefer a private to a public school, let them enjoy their preference, but let it be understood that henceforth and forever, in America at least, there shall be no uneducated class. Parents have no such exclusive and overshadowing property in their offspring as to entitle them to murder their souls and bodies either through ignorance or caprice.

A bill for compulsory education, wise in most of its provisions, was presented to the Ohio legislature last winter. Had its author's efforts for its passage been promptly seconded by the educators

of the State, those efforts might have been crowned with success; or, failing in that, a strong foundation for future operation would have been laid. In the most favorable view of the case, our leaders of educational thought can not be held blameless for their indifference in the matter. It is earnestly to be hoped, however, that they and all other classes of men interested in the welfare of society, may soon be brought to realize that the next great aggressive educational movement to be made is the one for compulsory education, and that they may join hands for its inauguration by appropriate legislative enactment.

PROGRESS.

ON THE TEACHING OF READING.

Reading is only a means to further ends, and, hence, it is not to be taught solely for reading's sake. The question arises how may these other objects of reading be met by the use of our ordinary school readers.

1. In teaching reading itself, it is necessary that the teacher read the piece first. The pupil can only learn to read from a good model, and no child can present such a model. The more a pupil is left to himself, being simply requested to read correctly, and the more the teacher neglects to read to him well, the less will a pupil learn to read. Of course an explanation of what is read and a stimulation of the feelings must aid in this; for æsthetic reading not only depends on a correct conception, but also on a consciousness and strength with which the matter read and pronounced is digested.

2. The pupil should now try to read the lesson by his own efforts, and this should be repeated until he acquires a certain proficiency in correct delivery. It is not important that the pupil be permitted to read a large amount of matter, but it is essential to dwell upon one piece perseveringly until it is correctly read. Superficial reading may be resorted to after fluent, correct reading has been acquired.

These two drills apply mainly to reading as reading, but they also extend into another sphere, and secure higher ends. Mind and feeling are brought into action, and a conception of the matter is secured, resulting in intellectual growth.

3. This will be better attained, if the reading matter be not only spoken through with the scholar, now developing, then de-

fining, etc., but if little excursions be made into the realms of nature, history, ethics, etc. Such excursions are indispensable, if the teacher intends to bring out the full sense of the piece. Secondary objects are to be separated from the main ones, in order that they may not be confounded, at the expense of clear conception. If the reading lesson be a dialogue, it ought to be read by two pupils, because the different characters can thus be better represented and a better elocution secured. The reading will be more lively, approaching nearer to reality, and hence it will be more intelligible. The different characters ought to be compared to see the author's intention.

4. The memorizing of meritorious pieces is to be recommended, because it secures some further intellectual results, as the culture of the memory, acquirement of certain forms of speech and expression, etc. It will be advisable, though, to limit this exercise to a smaller number of pieces.

5. The reading piece also affords a basis for grammatical instruction, presenting the necessary grammatical materials. This belongs to grammar, and is not here discussed. We may remark that, in order to success, the teacher should follow a fixed plan.

6. The reading pieces can be used for the advancement of the pupil in the written expression of thought. To this end it is recommended (1) that the pupil copy the reading pieces from the book, and afterward produce such pieces from memory. (2) That he narrate other pieces which he has read, or which have been read to him, in a free-hand manner, either orally or in writing. Here the translation of metric pieces into prose and then the transformation of single sentences, should be resorted to. (3) That he be required to analyze the piece into its parts, and to analyze sentences which have not yet been defined. (4) That he imitate a reading piece, *i. e.*, that he invent a similar one. For example, he may use a description of a dog as a model for a description of a cat. (5) That he shorten or abbreviate a reading piece, giving the same only in its main features. Here the single parts may be differently headed. (6) That he reproduce the piece in a changed form; as, for example, by representing the production of an author as the pupil's own experience. Here the pupil can make use of the letter-form, or he may transform a narrative into a description when admissible. (7) That he transforms a reading piece in such a manner as to change a certain less obvious thought of the piece, and make it the main thought.

It is evident, however, that all the exercises under No. 5 are not fully applicable to every reading piece. Some will be of use in one piece; others in another, according to the contents and the style of the piece. Moreover, it will not be possible to carry through all these exercises in every school. Much, also, depends on the teacher. R. WEYHER.

PRACTICAL HINTS.—No. 5.

BY E. O. VAILE.

1. Analysis is a good thing; but much that is called analysis is simply "rote." By repetition it is made simply a formula, and presents all the evils of the old method "by rule." A scholar may go through a process so often, that, though it be the strictest logic, for him its logic is lost, and only a form is retained. It were better to give him the rule at once, and have done with it.

The evils of this plan may be briefly indicated by that common phrase, "Drilling it in." This plan is a relic of that old system which modern methods are trying to supplant. This drilling process transforms what little reason may have been developed by the *form* of analysis, into a mere act of memory; and, it seems to me, is admissible only in the acquisiton of such knowledge as spelling, the multiplication-table, local geography, and the like, subjects which we are obliged to use and possess as matters of simple memory on account of their nature, importance, or convenience. But in the other and higher part of school work—discipline and culture—when iteration is made an important aid, our method is defective. We get the results of repetition, not of thought; and repetition is not a means of genuine education. We truly educate, only when the mind, fully awake and conscious of its own processes, is led to apply principles. So, instead of "drilling a subject in", it ought to be put in as a matter of common sense, of judgment, of reason, and it should so remain and be used, until we seek for objects other than discipline. I do not wish to be understood as undervaluing thoroughness. It is for that I plead; for I do not think instruction has been really thorough, when readiness and correctness are the results of "class drills" only.

2. Problems and examples should not be used, as they most always are, to clinch in the mind, as it were, by repeated blows, arbitrary principles, or even the form of analysis. They should rather be used as a test and indicator of mental power and growth. When once a principle has been thoroughly comprehended, which does not by any means depend solely upon the amount of illustration, the guarantee that it will remain available should not rest in the number of times it has been repeated and applied, but in the mental strength and habit of the child. The fact that a pupil "has been over and over" a subject, is quite insufficient evidence that he has mastered it, or that it will abide with him. The apology so often rendered for the deficiencies of a class, that they have been over the subject but *once*, rarely deserves the credit it receives. Not only has a bad method been pursued, but the evil has been increased by confirming that vicious idea, so prevalent, that it should not be presumed that children know what they have not often repeated. The effects of this kind of discipline in the lower grades is well illustrated when geometry is entered. Witness the amount of time and labor required to be able to reproduce a demonstration. If children were accustomed from the beginning to proceed upon rigid, though simple logic, the ability to understand and retain a line of thought from a single perusal or hearing would not be looked upon as a special gift, but as the result of their training. I would not dispense with memory or oppose its development; but I regard him as the best workman, who produces a given result with the minimum of gross, mechanical effort, and the maximum of genuine thought-power,—who substitutes for repetition, and a lower order of intellect, acuteness and concentration,—who depends upon the effective single stroke of a sharp edge, rather than the repeated hackings of a dull one.

2. As tending thus to dilute pure mental effort, I am compelled to question the utility of the plan, so common in arithmetic, of dividing a subject into cases, and classifying the examples. It seems necessary to the complete and systematic presentation of a subject; but its inevitable tendency is to diminish the self-reliance of the pupil. He should certainly be able to classify the subject; but he should possess its analysis as an original creation of his own, and not as an import from another's brain. How often is it found that the ability of a class to solve an example, depends upon whether they know under what case it belongs. They have lost sight of general principles in the application of

special ones. It is often better, instead of "working through" each case separately, to take the subject as a whole from the foundation; and to leave the distinct recognition of the different cases to the discovery of the pupil as the last result of this mastery of the subject. For example, instead of presenting the three or four cases of percentage, one after the other, let the scholar, by means of analysis, operate upon the general principles that belong to it, and at last possess the classification as a deduction of his own.

TRUE PESTALOZZIANISM.

Had the founders of Quakerism been judged solely by occasional vagaries of imagination and extravagancies of action, not by the deep earnestness and spirituality, the singleness of heart and self-denial, which characterized these ancient worthies, a great injustice would have been done them. The writer of the article on "Pestalozzianism", in the September number, seems to have fallen into a somewhat similar error.

He has fastened on a few possible errors of judgment and practice, most of which were forced upon Pestalozzi by almost uncontrollable circumstances, whilst he has ignored the spirit of his teaching, whose aim it was to impress on the mother that she stood on earth as the visible representation of God's providence to her child. He did not care to point out short cuts to knowledge, to reveal new wonders of science, but to appeal to the inner life of neglected children, to set up anew in their hearts the pure image of God, now blurred and defiled by evil influences, by destitution and the want of a mother's watchful love.

Under what circumstances was Pestalozzi placed, when the writer caricatures him as spending his time in making his pupils repeat in concert some lifeless and wordy nonsense? He was then giving such shelter as he could to a crowd of young children whom the French invasion of Switzerland had left in absolute destitution. They were herded in a dilapidated hall, bare of furniture, with none but an old housekeeper to help him. That one apartment, which was used as a school-room by day, had to be provided at night with scanty bedding. In the midst of these children, demoralized by poverty, vagrancy, disease, and every evil influence, he was like some self-devoted missionary standing

alone in the midst of a horde of savages whom he is laboring to tame and civilize.

He had no books nor any other mechanical tools of instruction. In short, as he said himself, "His whole school apparatus consisted of himself and his pupils!" Hence, cut off from all artificial aid, he was compelled to direct his whole attention to the natural elements of knowledge lurking in every child's mind.

Say ye, who, in your well appointed school-rooms, with all the modern resources of books, objects, pictures, models, maps, with pupils already broken by domestic training to habits of discipline and attention, what would you, what could you have done in his place?

But follow him to Yverdon when success had at last rewarded the untiring efforts of years; when the eyes of the leading educators of Germany and France were turned to his labors; when the attention of governments was awakened, and his establishment was crowded with pupils from every part of Europe; when co-workers, animated with a kindred spirit of self-devotedness, elaborated into a system the luminous hints that flashed from his master-mind, but which he lacked aptitude to methodize;—there, ere pecuniary difficulties aggravated the physical and mental infirmities incident to old age, we can realize the full power of "Pestalozzianism."

Never, perhaps, has the ideal of domestic life, in the purest sense of the word, been more beautifully exemplified than during that golden age of the institution at Yverdon, where men of every age, rank, and nationality, of the most diversified gifts and attainments, and of the most opposite dispositions, were drawn together and bound in one chain of harmony by that unaffected spirit of love with which he seemed to inspire all that came within the spell of his influence.

With their assistance, the not groundless complaints to which his often desultory modes of teaching had given rise at the beginning, gradually ceased. The great work on which their efforts were now centered, was to arrange a complete system of elementary training in the order indicated by the successive development of the faculties of children, embodying exercises on language, form, and number. These courses, after a test of two years' experience in the school-room, and after undergoing the careful revisal of Pestalozzi and his colleagues, were given to the world.

Meanwhile, Yverdon sent forth, as missionaries in the field of

education, disciples who have left their mark in Germany, Switzerland, France, England, etc. Some of these it was my high privilege to meet and make my friends in Paris and London. They were all characterized by love and veneration for their master, whilst acknowledging with sorrow the improvidence, and the want of business habits which embittered his latter years, impaired his usefulness, and finally broke up the establishment. Now, I ask, would their veneration have outlived the wreck of his fortunes, the sneers of his enemies, and the lapse of years, if his only merit had been a kind of mechanical knack in a so-called method of drill? No, it was reserved for a later age to pervert into mannerism and narrow formalism "object teaching", of which Pestalozzi laid the foundation.

His undying claim to the gratitude of posterity is, that he substituted instruction for routine, numbers for figures, living sounds for lifeless characters, deeds of faith and love for abstract creeds and dry catechisms, substances for shadows, realities for signs, the spirit for the letter.

The writer of that article on "Pestalozzianism" indulges in a kind of quibble about words, telling us that, if a teacher gave no names at all, he would be reduced to a dumb show. The whole course of Pestalozzi's teaching shows how pointless is the joke. Thus, in grammar, before giving the technical definition of nouns, verbs, etc., he would make his pupils familiar with their nature, by drilling them in the construction of sentences containing nouns, verbs, etc. In arithmetic, before giving them, for instance, a rule for adding fractions, he would lead them to find out for themselves the impossibility of adding fractions of different denominations. In moral teaching, instead of lecturing about charity, he would, by appeals to their own hearts and to their experience, waken up the feeling, and then he would give it a name.

Since Pestalozzi's time, intellectual and moral training has, of course, taken prodigious strides. But, in the pride of our modern attainments, let us not forget who first pointed out the way and acted as pioneer. Even in the remotest parts of this vast republic, which were a savage wilderness when Pestalozzi lived and labored for humanity, in many an unpretending school-house by the way side, may be found some devoted teacher, poor in this world's gold or fame, but rich in the treasures of the spirit, who cherishes in his heart and dispenses to others the lessons instilled by equally devoted instructors. If we could only follow to their

source the influences which have made the system of national education in America a national blessing, we should ultimately trace them to the teachings of Pestalozzi, whom Europe, instead of deriding as the silly promulgator of a childish and formal perversion of object teaching, still reverences as the reformer of educational routine and as the founder of rational system of moral, religious, and intellectual culture. T. E. S.

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

No. I.—Primary Reading.

BY WM. F. PHELPS.*

This course should include all the steps below the second reader.

During the first six weeks *words* and *not letters* should be taught. If the teacher possesses the requisite degree of skill and earnestness, from fifty to sixty words may be learned by the children during this time. They should also be able to distinguish many of the words when written on the blackboard and slate, and to give the sounds contained in each word, as well as to read short sentences composed of them, which the teacher may write or print upon the blackboard. In drilling the class great pains should be taken to exercise the children in emphasis. They should be led, by a little judicious questioning, to throw the stress upon the different words.

For example, let it be supposed that the sentence, "John has a good black dog", has been written or printed upon the blackboard by the teacher. The following colloquy will illustrate the method of securing emphasis upon the different words and of avoiding a monotonous style in the reading exercise:

Teacher. *Who* has a good black dog?
Children. *John* has a good black dog.
T. What *kind* of a black dog has John?
C. John has a *good* black dog.
T. Has John a good *white* dog?
C. No: John has a good *black* dog. Etc.

In this drill each member of the class should be called upon

* Principal State Normal School, Winona, Minn.

separately, and occasionally the entire class may respond simultaneously. The questioning should extend to every word in the sentence, so that the children may be able to throw the emphasis upon any word which the teacher may desire.

In teaching new words, the following order may be observed:

1. Talk about the object or the action which the word represents.

2. If the word represents an object, show the object or a picture of it to the class. If it expresses an action, let the children, or some of them, perform the action if possible.

3. Show the word, give the sounds it contains, and let the children pronounce it several times. Let the children again name the object, at the same time pointing to it. Then to a picture of it, the children speaking of it as the *picture* of the object. Lastly, point again to the object word, and let it be characterized by the children as such.

4. Require the children to find each new word many times on a chart or in a book.

5. Print it on the blackboard.

6. Write it on the board.

7. Send the children to their seats, requiring them to copy the written form on their slates.

At the end of six weeks, or thereabouts, let the teacher point to the letters in connection with the word-exercise, requiring the new words to be spelled orally, each letter being pronounced distinctly. The teacher should also insist from the first upon a clear and distinct enunciation of each word, so that careless habits of articulation may not be formed, which years of after training may not suffice to eradicate.

At this stage of the course, the children should be encouraged to learn new words before coming to the class. The exercises on the sounds of the letters, and in writing and printing upon the blackboard, should also be perseveringly continued. In this manner, at the end of three months, the pupils will have become almost independent of the teacher in the preparation of their lessons in reading, and there will be little left for the latter to do but to guide them cheerfully and rapidly forward.

I will conclude this sketch with the enunciation of a few brief rules for conducting primary reading lessons:

1. Require the children to stand in a straight line in an erect position, books in left hand, pointing to their lesson with the index finger of the right hand.

2. Before the books are opened, let the pupils tell what the lesson is about, giving a summary of the subject-matter as well as they are able. This will encourage them to study their reading lessons, if commended when they do well.

3. Require all the more difficult words in the lesson to be pronounced, spelled by sound, singly and in concert, and defined.

4. The children should not be allowed to read in regular order. The teacher should frequently call for volunteers, and if an inattentive child be observed, let him suddenly be called upon to read. Great caution and much animation should be observed by the teacher in conducting a lesson of this kind, or the work will all be done by the brighter and more intelligent pupils. If the dull children be properly encouraged to try, they will be stimulated and aroused by the vivacious eagerness of the other members of the class.

5. Be sure that the words contained in each lesson, can be spelled by each child.

6. Require that some portions of each lesson be written by the children on their slates, and brought to the class at each recitation. Generally it would be well to allow the pupils to select the portion they will write.

7. It is better not to follow always the order of the lessons in the book, but to let the class occasionally choose their lessons.

8. Frequently turn back and read old lessons.

9. *Give short lessons.* Exercise the pupils in pronouncing each alternate word rapidly, the teacher pronouncing the other words.

10. Be cheerful, kind, animated, and interested yourself, if you expect your pupils to be so.

11. Provide your school with good blackboards, and with a set of reading charts or with Webb's dissected cards for primary classes. Use these thoroughly according to the foregoing suggestions, and your primary classes can not fail to prosper.

It will be my aim to present in a succeeding sketch some hints on teaching writing and number to the primary classes of the district school.—MONTHLY, *July.*

——BY no mathematical calculation of chances can a human being foretell what knowledge he may have need of, or what quality of mind may be called into requisition in the affairs of his own life.—VENABLE.

Editorial Department.

—— Our contributed articles last month were all, with one exception, by educators in other States. This month Ohio teachers nearly fill our pages. These facts are, however, purely accidental, as we seek the best educational views and experience, without reference to state lines. Next month Miss Lathrop will continue her excellent "Thoughts on Primary Instruction"; Prof. Phelps will present another of his valuable series of articles on "Methods of Teaching for District Schools"; and other contributions of like practical value are promised.

—— We are very glad to learn that our editorial in the last number on "The Freedom of the Teacher", is receiving very general and hearty approval. We have heard one excuse for the tendency condemned. It is asserted that a considerable number of the teachers in our graded schools know too little of teaching to do anything but operative work; that good methods must be prescribed and enforced or they will use very poor ones. If it be granted that this state of things exists, the paramount question is, *What is the true remedy?* Is it not *instruction*, rather than *authority?* The setting of inexperienced teachers to crank turning is a poor way to prepare them for true teaching, and, besides, all experience shows that such a cast-iron system sacrifices the best power of competent teachers. But we do not intend to re-discuss this subject. We only wish to say that the time has fully come when the abuses of the graded system should be considered and, if possible, removed. It is very important that the rights as well as the mutual relations and duties of teachers, superintendents, and boards, should be more clearly defined and better understood. We are promised an early article on this subject by one of the most successful city superintendents in the West, and we hope that others may feel moved to express their views. Let us have light—at least, earnest discussion.

—— At least one of the "Plain Criticisms" of our correspondent deserves consideration. We allude to the first specified—the lack of thoroughness in the common branches on the part of the graduates of some high schools. Years ago we listened to a very poor recitation in moral philosophy by a large class about to graduate from a noted high school. In response to an inquiry, the superintendent, who conducted the recitation, stated that not one pupil of the class in five could parse correctly the words in ordinary simple sentences. Years after we examined several successive classes of the graduates of this school, who were applicants for positions as teachers. The great majority of them failed even in arithmetic, geography, and English grammar, though the questions submitted largely related to essential elementary principles which,

once thoroughly understood, ought to be a sure possession. The failure was most marked just where a little clear thinking was needed—a power which high school training should certainly increase. What is the explanation of this result? Are not the pupils in our graded schools kept long enough in the common branches? Do they not spend time enough on arithmetic and English grammar? Are they forced over these subjects too early? Are the moderate and dull pupils dragged over them by the brighter minority? What is the trouble, and what is the remedy? We are glad to know that there are high schools whose pupils do not lose their knowledge of the common branches while pursuing the higher. Will some one tell our readers how this very desirable result is secured?

—AT the late meeting of the State Teachers' Association of Massachusetts, the finance committee reported an indebtedness of $1,440, after deducting all reliable assets. This debt has been incurred by the Association in publishing the *Massachusetts Teacher*, the greater part having accumulated during the war. The *Teacher* is one of the oldest, ablest, and best known of the state educational journals, and it is surprising that it has not paid expenses, even under the bad financial management of an Association. The committee's report is a great muddle, but we gather from it that the receipts from the State last year, were $800, and from subscriptions, $2,466.75. The receipts from advertising are not given. The cost of publishing the *Teacher* was $2,648, which, we take it, does not include office rent, clerk's wages, etc. The amount due from delinquent subscribers is reported at $1,291! The annual loss from this source has been from $500 to $800. The Association did two wise things. An earnest effort was made to liquidate the debt, and $1,100 were raised on the spot. It was next voted that future subscriptions shall be paid *in advance*—a step which should have been taken years ago. This financial experience of the *Massachusetts Teacher*, with the professional spirit of Massachusetts teachers to sustain it, shows that educational journals are not money-making enterprises. Nor does Massachusetts afford the only illustration. The *Michigan Teacher*, now closing its fifth volume, has, we believe, never paid expenses, and yet it is one of the very best journals of the kind in the country. The *Pennsylvania School Journal* has just changed hands, and the chief reason, given by the veteran retiring editor, is "a want of compensating support." There is no educational journal in the country, that pays adequately for its editing and publishing.

—THE first number of *Scribner's Monthly* contains a brief editorial on "Sex and Wages." The editor admits that the statement, "when a woman does the same work as a man, she should have the same pay," looks fair and sounds well, but he finds a law that sets it aside—"the law that that instrument or agent of labor which has the higher value, shall command the greater return for use and operation." Man as a general laborer is more valuable than woman. "He has the larger, stronger, and hardier frame, and is free from many of the disadvantages which woman as a laborer is obliged to encounter."

Hence he can do many kinds of work better than woman, and his sphere of labor is wider. He clears the forests, mines, builds railroads, constructs ships and steamers, etc. His value as a general laborer is superior to woman's, and hence he receives superior wages, not only for work which woman can not do as well, but for all kinds of work. His wages as a general laborer determines his wages for special work. A man will not make clothes for much less wages than the carpenter receives. A woman makes clothes for less than a carpenter's wages, because she can not also do a carpenter's work. There are some kinds of work which boys can do as well as men, but a bobbin-boy in a mill can not command man's wages or even woman's. The writer claims that the operation of this law is limited to the common work of the world. The moment the body—the instrument of labor—is counted out, the sexes are on common ground. In the realm of creative art, Mrs. Browning, Mrs. Stowe, Miss Hosmer, Jenny Lind, and Miss Dickinson are the peers of men in reward as well as performance. This, in brief, is Dr. Holland's view of the question of wages, and we think all will admit that it is, at least, very suggestive. In the application of this law to the business of teaching, we think he fails to make a just discrimination. True teaching is an *art*, and not "common work", chiefly dependent on the body. Here mind, and not muscle, determines the workman's value, and, hence, this law is set aside or greatly limited. Indeed, is there not a class of pursuits between "common work" and the "creative arts", in which this law is only partially applicable? The reward of all skilled labor is less and less influenced by sex as the skill assumes the higher form of art.

—— The *Illinois Teacher* for November contains a spirited defence of State Normal Schools by Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota. He states that the first State Normal School in this country, established in 1838, still lives and prospers, and that the number of such schools has already increased to nearly *fifty*, many having been put in operation within the past five years. "The State of New York, from a single Normal School in 1840, with an annual appropriation of $10,000 has inaugurated six others, with an annual appropriation of nearly $150,000. Wisconsin has established three within the past five years, two of which are in successful operation, and she has accumulated a fund for their support, valued at $1,000,000. Minnesota has, within the same period, established three, all of which are eminently successful. This young State has appropriated from her treasury, during the time named, the sum of $200,000 for the support and encouragement of these agencies for the training of teachers." He cites other examples, as Illinois and Indiana, to show the increasing public recognition of the value of Normal Schools. The design of these pioneer schools is not to supply all the schools with teachers trained in them, but to train a large number of teachers, and *through them* to "improve the average quality of yet other teachers", by example and instruction, and by contact with them in institutes and associations. "And nobly have they answered heir design; fully have they vindicated the sagacity and wisdom of the far-seeing men who have struggled so manfully and long to place them in an assured position." It is admitted that they are imperfect—so are our college

and public schools—but they are no longer an experiment. They are an accomplished fact—a signal success. Prof. Phelps also maintains that "it is the duty of the State to establish and liberally support Normal Schools enough *to supply every school with a competent teacher.*" This is the true idea, but, as will be admitted, its full realization is far in the future. Meanwhile, Normal Schools must be supplemented by teachers' institutes of different grades, and by other agencies which place some valuable professional assistance within the reach of all teachers. But, by all means, let Normal Schools be multiplied as rapidly as possible.

—— The *Galaxy* for December pays a very high compliment to American educators. In an appreciative review of Dr. J. W. Hoyt's recent report on the condition of "Education in Europe and America", it says:

"Every decade, and especially the last, has seen reports, lectures, and addresses innumerable, written by teachers or educated men in behalf of a better provision for schools, both primary and high. And we may fairly do educational men the honor of saying that their productions as a class rank with those of lawyers, doctors, editors, or any other practisers of the liberal professions. We think, indeed, that generally speaking, with all the experience of editors in writing, and lawyers in speaking, for earnestness, comprehension of a great theme, and even for excellence in oratory, the palm must be given to the teachers."

This is not only high praise, but it is most encouraging evidence of a growing public appreciation of the profession of teaching. When popular estimation places professional educators on a par with the members of the other liberal professions in intellectual, literary, and oratorical power, a great victory will have been won for the cause of education. These are qualities which men esteem, and when their possession by teachers is generally recognized, the business of teaching will receive higher public consideration. We can not estimate the indebtedness of popular education in this country to the clear thinking, felicitous expression, and stirring eloquence of Horace Mann. That practical educator who wins public esteem as a thinker, writer, and speaker, renders the cause of education most efficient and valuable service.

VENTILATION.

A few of the important principles involved in the proper ventilation of a school-room, may be regarded as settled. The room must not only be supplied with pure air, but, in cold weather especially, this pure air must be warm, and it must not be too dry. What is needed is an abundant supply of *pure warm air, containing the requisite amount of moisture.* This is the first condition of good ventilation.

The mere statement of this condition is sufficient to show the inadequacy of windows as a means of ventilation. They admit *cold* air, thus lowering the temperature of the room. In severe winter weather, this becomes so great an inconvenience as to necessitate the closing of the windows to exclude the cold air. Besides, the windows of school-rooms are sometimes so situated that they

can not be opened in cold weather, even at the top, without sending currents of cold air upon the pupils sitting near them. This difficulty may be partially obviated by lowering several windows a little each. This is much better than to lower one window much, except when the window lowered is near the stove, and *not* too near the pupils. In cold weather, the windows should remain closed a few minutes after the opening of school, but, as soon as the room is sufficiently warm, they should be opened a little, if possible, and always *at the top*. When there is wind, they should be opened on the *lee* side of the room.

But how may school-rooms be supplied with air which is both *pure* and *warm*? Let experience furnish an answer. When buildings, not too large, are heated by furnaces, this may be readily secured, provided the furnaces are properly constructed. The furnaces should be large enough to avoid the necessity of over-heating, thus burning the air and destroying its vitality—to use popular language. The cold-air ducts should lead from the furnaces *to the outside of the building*. It is a great blunder to let the hot-air chamber of a furnace open into a cellar or basement. It should be supplied with fresh air direct from "all out doors." Further, these cold-air ducts should be large, and they should extend from the furnace to the opposite sides of the building. This will secure proper draft, whatever may be the direction of the wind. Furnaces should also be provided with means for the evaporation of water, to supply the requisite moisture.

A majority of school-houses, especially in country districts, are too small for the convenient use of furnaces, and hence they are generally heated by stoves. But the common stove is not a good ventilator. Instead of bringing warm air into the room, its draft makes every "crack and crevice" a means for the entrance of cold air. Stoves may, however, be so constructed as to introduce into the room a constant supply of fresh warm air, and thus they may be made the best of ventilators. To this end, the stove, except the door and draft-opening, should be inclosed with a casing, with openings in the top and terminating below in a cold-air duct, extending under the floor to the wall of the building and opening into the outer air. When the stove is heated, the air between the stove and the casing is heated, and, being thus rarified, it rises, and the cold air from without flows through the duct to take its place, and thus a constant current of *fresh warm air* is poured into the room. Such a stove is a small furnace, the space between the casing and the stove being the hot-air chamber, and, as a ventilator, it is much better than a basement furnace, as will hereafter be shown. Years ago we used a stove constructed in this manner. It was a great success, and we wonder that the ventilating stove is not in general use in school buildings not heated by steam or furnaces. Its cost need not exceed from $40 to $50, and even as a means of evenly distributing warm air through a room and avoiding the over-heating of pupils who sit near the stove, it is worth more than its cost.

The hot-air chamber of the stove used by us was supplied with only top openings for the escape of warm air. This made it somewhat inconvenient for warming or drying the feet. This defect might easily be remedied by two sets of exit openings, one above and the other below, with a simple contrivance for closing the one and opening the other. By closing the upper openings, the

current of warm air would be directed to the floor. A ventilating stove should always have a vessel for the evaporation of water.

But the introduction of pure warm air into a school-room meets only one condition of good ventilation. There is a second condition, almost if not quite as important. *Impure air must be removed from the room.* The breathing of air fills it with carbonic acid gas and impure exhalations, and it is necessary that this poisoned, impure air be removed. A complete ventilation requires a *circulation* of air—the flowing of pure warm air into a room and the flowing of impure and poisoned air out of it. The failure to meet this second condition is the weakness of nearly all systems of ventilation.

One of the most stupid and, we are sorry to add, most general of these blunders is the system of ventilating flues. These flues, as ordinarily constructed, are utterly worthless, and, for the reason, that they are cold flues, and hence have *no draft.* Ventilating flues should always be constructed in connection with the smoke flues so that they may be heated. This may be done by separating the two flues by thin plates of iron, or, what is better, by placing the smoke flue, in the form of an iron pipe, *within* the ventilating flue. The heat of the smoke-flue will cause the necessary draft in the ventilating flue, and thus a good circulation is secured. This arrangement is so simple and inexpensive, that it may be introduced into the cheapest one-story houses, heated by stoves, as well as into large buildings, heated by furnaces.

The openings in these heated ventilating flues should be *near the floor.* Carbonic acid gas is heavier than common air of the same temperature, and hence the vitiated air, which needs to be removed, is found in greatest abundance near the floor. This explains the efficiency of an open grate or fire-place as a ventilator. The draft takes a large volume of air from the lowest portion of the room, and hence much poisonous gas is removed. This also shows why the lowering of windows does not sufficiently purify the air of rooms heated by common furnaces. The windows permit the escape of the warm air, which rises and fills the upper portion of the room, but they fail to remove the vitiated air below. The fresh air, which they admit, does, however, lessen the deleterious effect of the poisonous gas which the pupils are constantly breathing into the room.

We are now prepared to see why the ventilating stove is superior to the basement furnace as a means of ventilation. It not only sends a current of pure warm air into the room, but its fire-draft takes impure air out of it. The current of air *from* the room also increases the flow of pure warm air into the room, thus increasing the needed circulation. In other words, a ventilating stove meets *both* conditions of good ventilation (the second partially), while the furnace, as ordinarily constructed, meets but *one.* But the fire draft of the ventilating stove should be supplemented by ventilating flues, constructed as above described, and with *large* openings near the floor.

We have thus given some of the results of investigation and experience in the ventilation of school-rooms, and we commend the subject to teachers and school officers as one of the greatest practical importance. The health of thousands of pupils and teachers is impaired every winter by the want of properly ventilated school-rooms; and, in view of this sad fact, may we not urge

teachers whose rooms are heated by ordinary furnaces or stoves, without ventilating appliances, to make skillful and faithful use of the windows—their only reliance. It requires constant care and good judgment so to manage windows as to supply fresh air and, at the same time, avoid the pouring of currents of cold air on pupils.

FIRST STEPS IN TEACHING READING.

We have long been satisfied that neither the A B C method, nor the phonic method, nor the word method, is the true method of teaching primary reading. Each is partial, being but a step in that complete system, which, for the want of a better term, we have called the *Union* method. We have also taught that the instruction should begin back of words—with the *ideas* which they represent. The three steps in word teaching relate first to the *idea* which the word represents; secondly, to the word as a *sound;* and, thirdly, to the word as a *form*. When the word as a whole is thus taught, it should next be composed and analyzed, first as a *sound* and then as a *form;* that is, the child should then be taught to spell words, first by the *elementary sounds* which compose them when spoken, and then by the *letters* which form them when written or printed.

These steps in word teaching may be thus represented:

- Steps in word-teaching.
  - 1. The word *as a whole.*
    - 1. The *idea* which it represents.
    - 2. The word as a *sound.*
    - 3. The word as a *form.*
  - 2. The *analysis* of the word.....
    - 1. As a *sound*—by its elementary sounds.
    - 2. As a *form*—by the names of its letters.

It should be remarked that the above order is to be followed in the *first lessons* in reading. It is the initiatory method. Soon the child will be able to learn new words from the letters which compose them, and the earlier this ability is imparted the better, provided the natural order is not violated. The second step—the analysis of words—should not be long postponed. Indeed, the skillful teacher will find little difficulty in combining all these steps in the same lesson, and from the first. Most teachers, however, succeed better by using the word method exclusively until the pupil can read a few little sentences with fluency and natural expression. This can be done usually in from three to four weeks. The exclusive use of the word method for several months is a great mistake.

We would emphasize the importance of introducing the child to new words through the *ideas* which they express. This can not always be done, since the meaning of some words can only be learned through their use. In the child's *first* lessons, this order may be generally observed. But whether the idea or the word is first taught, the idea should not be ignored. Few habits are more fatal to scholarship than the practice of handling words as forms and sounds without reference to the ideas which they symbolize, and especially is this true, when

this parrot habit is formed in the mastery of the primer. It is well nigh a crime for a primary teacher to divorce words from their ideas. When the tongue utters a word, the idea should flash into the mind. The symbol should be filled with the thing symbolized.

THE TEACHER AND THE STATE JOURNALS.

We are sorry to notice that a few of the state school journals are a little jealous of THE NATIONAL TEACHER. The *Iowa School Journal* goes so far as to question the need of such a periodical, and it thinks that it is the duty of teachers and school officers "to patronize their own state educational monthlies before a national one." We agree that teachers should first patronize their own organ, but there are many teachers who wish an educational journal in *addition* to their own, and they prefer one which is not local in its character. THE NATIONAL TEACHER is designed to meet this want, and, as we have said from the first, it is not to be a rival of the state journals. The price is $1.50 a year, and no person is authorized to receive a subscription for less; and, as the TEACHER does not subserve other business interests, we can not offer large commissions or premiums for subscriptions. The NATIONAL TEACHER will not "cut under" the state journals, either in price or in pecuniary rewards to canvassers. We trust that these considerations may make the TEACHER the welcome ally of the state periodicals, and that it may be as heartily commended by all as its merits may deserve. We are under obligations to several for appreciative and valuable commendations.

—— A FRIEND sends us the following extract from a letter received from a former pupil, a girl now in her twentieth year, and in the Freshman class in college. It is full of beauty and eloquence, and we print it to show how a young girl can give expression to feelings that have powerfully impressed her, and to provoke some of our young readers to a goodly emulation:

"Last Friday night, Prof. Clark took us out to look at Saturn through the telescope. The ring, that wonder of the solar system, was plainly visible; but the instrument had to be frequently readjusted, else the planet, then sinking low, would pass from the field of vision. An hour later, I saw it twinkling on the edge of the horizon—a few minutes more, it disappeared from sight. An hour or two afterwards, I looked again. The great Dipper was bending low; amid the moving stars Polaris alone stood firm; while, noiseless and serene, the moon pursued her westward journey. Night held me reverent; the mystery of worlds unknown, the limitless spaces of the sky were before me. Human intellect and its achievements stood dwarfed beside them. Galileo and Newton bridged yawning chasms in science; but who shall pass us over this one—the wherefore of creation?

"Thought becomes fragmentary; millions of worlds shine down, confusing all perception of time and space. Will they ever stop shining? How small they look, as though I might take up a number, a handful of stars! Yet, so vast; yet, so far away that some look on with the light of centuries past! I should lose all power of thought, if I gazed long. They shone in my dreams that night, and, in the morning, I woke with a vague feeling of having been with celestial things."

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—— The first volume of the Teacher will end with the December number, 1871, and all who subscribe before the edition of the three numbers now issued is exhausted will receive *fifteen* numbers. These will make a volume of about *six hundred pages*, devoted to educational questions of great practical interest and importance, and presenting the best experience of the country in school instruction and management—and all for $1.50. The sender of the names of five subscribers, with $7.50, will receive the Teacher one year *free*.

—— The *Ohio Educational Monthly* closed its eleventh volume—the nineteenth of the old series—with the December number. The volume contains 484 pages, exclusive of advertisements—an average of over *forty* pages of reading matter to each number. The *Monthly* has now the largest circulation among teachers in its history, and it is believed that it has a much larger *professional* support than any other state educational journal in the country. It enters on a new volume with the hope of still larger success. These facts are an assurance that The National Teacher, the national edition of the *Monthly*, will be worthy of a large circulation. The three numbers now issued are an earnest of what may be expected.

Personal.—Hon. Stephen Salisbury, of Worcester, Mass., has added over $50,000 to his previous benefactions to the Worcester County Free Institute of Industrial Science, making a total of $150,000.

President Woolsey, of Yale College, intends to resign at the close of the twenty-fifth year of his administration. It is believed that Professor Porter will be his successor.

Supt. H. D. McCarty, of Leavenworth, Kansas, was nominated by the State Teachers' Association for Superintendent of Public Instruction; the people ratified; and in January next he enters on the duties of the office.

Hon. J. P. Wickersham, State School Superintendent of Pennsylvania, and J. P. McCaskey, of Lancaster, have bought the *School Journal*, and are its joint editors and publishers. It will take high rank.

Hon. Samuel Fallows, State School Superintendent of Wisconsin, and Rev. J. B. Pradt, Assistant Superintendent, take editorial charge of the *Wisconsin Journal of Education*, to be revived next month under the auspices of the State Teachers' Association.

Rev. J. G. Aikman, formerly a teacher at Mt. Healthy, O., is professor of the Ancient Languages in Western College, Iowa.

Prof. C. W. Bennett, late superintendent of the schools of Greenfield, Ohio, has resumed the chair of mathematics in Moore's Hill College, Indiana.

NEW ENGLAND.

The Massachusetts Institute of Technology.—This institution, organized in 1861, has now an available fund of over half a million of dollars, and it promises to vie with Yale and Harvard in the munificence of its endowment. It includes a Society of Arts, a Museum of Arts, and a School of Industrial Science. The Scientific School was opened in 1864, and it enrolled last year 206 students. The faculty consists of seventeen professors and eight assistant instructors. It provides a four

years' course of scientific and literary studies and exercises, embracing pure and applied mathematics, the physical and natural sciences with their applications, drawing, the English language, mental and political science, French and German. The studies and exercises for the first two years are pursued by all students, but, at the beginning of the third year, each student selects one of the six special courses of study. These special courses have certain general studies in common, but differ widely in technical studies. The course in science and literature is thorough and comprehensive. The requirements for admission include a knowledge of arithmetic, elementary algebra to equations of the second degree, plane geometry, English grammar, and geography. A knowledge of Latin is not required, but the study of this language is "strongly recommended."

CONNECTICUT.—The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held in New Haven last October, was very large and successful. About one thousand teachers were in attendance, and the exercises were very interesting. Gov. English addressed the Association in the closing session, rebuking in bold language the late attempt to abolish the State Board of Education. "If I should die to-morrow," he said, "nothing would afford me greater satisfaction than the remembrance of what I have been permitted to do for the cause of free schools. I would rather pay myself the whole cost of the State Board of Education than have that Board abolished—a Board which accomplishes so much good at so small cost." The Association decided to re-establish the *Connecticut School Journal*, and appointed a board of twelve editors, with H. C. Davis, New Haven, resident editor. The editors have issued a strong prospectus, and no pains will be spared to make the enterprise a success.

WOODSTOCK ACADEMY.—By the liberality and efforts of Mr. Bowen, proprietor of the New York *Independent*, this academy, located at Woodstock, Ct., has been partially endowed, and all that is needed to make it a first-class institution, is a more commodious building. The academy is in charge of Mr. E. H. Cook, a very successful teacher, and it is worthy of its growing reputation. All the students attended the late teachers' institute, held at Woodstock, and both their bearing and interest were admirable. We have seldom addressed a more intelligent and appreciative body of young people. Academies of this class fill an important place in our educational system.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES.

PENNSYLVANIA.—Hon. J. P. Wickersham, State Superintendent of Common Schools, has published a digest of all the laws of the State pertaining to schools, with the decisions and explanations of the School Department. The sections of the law are printed in solid type, and the decisions and explanations, in leaded type, follow the sections to which they relate. The whole is arranged in a systematic manner, and a complete index makes it easy to refer to any subject contained in the volume. The appendix contains rules of order and business, with forms for reports, etc. The volume is the result of much labor, and will be of great assistance to school officers and teachers. We have not space this month to specify the more important advantages of the Pennsylvania school system. Suffice it to say, that the State School Department is put in close contact with the system in its entire administration, and, to this fact, the great progress made in the past fifteen years is largely due. Supt. Wickersham's administration has been characterized by great energy and efficiency.

AVERY COLLEGE.—This institution, located in Allegheny City, Pa., is designed to afford colored students of both sexes facilities for acquiring a higher education. It was founded and endowed by the late Rev. Charles Avery, and is under the con-

BOOK NOTICES.

A TREATISE ON ELEMENTARY GEOMETRY with appendices containing a collectio Exercises for Students and an Introduction to Modern Geometry. By WILL CHAUVENET, LL.D., Professor of Mathematics and Astronomy in Washington U versity. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

After a careful study of this work, I can conscientiously say that I can hear recommend it to teachers who wish to rise above elementary principles, and acqu themselves with the modern improvements in this noble science. Even if they not think it possible or expedient to use it as a text-book, yet they should stud for themselves, according to Pestalozzi's maxim, "that a teacher should be abl soar above his subject." Hitherto it has been thought sufficient to go thro Euclid's Elements (that precious legacy from antiquity!) in the form published Davies, with the improvements by the French mathematicians up to Legendre, or far superior work of Loomis. But, since Legendre, geometry has not stood still; somewhat desultory disposition of theorems has been systematized; complex wordy demonstrations have been simplified; weak links in the chain of reasor have been strengthened; gaps filled up; and now geometry presents a much n winning aspect than when I studied it fifty years ago in the literal translation f the original Greek. He who would form an idea of the fair proportions of simplic method, and beauty which it has assumed on the continent of Europe, must t from our old-fashioned text-books to the beautiful work published six years ag Eli Tappan now President of Kenyon College, or to this, the latest exposition of continental system. Many will perhaps prefer Chauvenet's to Tappan's, because demonstrations and general plan do not deviate so widely from Davies or Loomi

Besides the systematic plan of discussing, first the properties of lines, then of angles, next polygons, etc., necessitating new modes of demonstration in the ea theorems, I would call attention to special points of interest: 1. The divisio each book into sections. 2. (p. 147) The inscribing of a decagon in a circle. T regarded as one of the most beautiful problems in the old geometry, exhibits he perfect specimen of analytic reasoning. 3. (p. 149) A beautiful theorem—the s of an inscribed dodecagon is equal to three times the square of the radius. 4. (p. The series of theorems connected with the measurement of the circle, substitut the perimeter for the area, with a section on the Doctrine of Limits, making the co of reasoning much more strictly logical. 5. (p. 166) A section on Maxima and M ima. 6. The VIth Book on the geometry of planes is very full and clear, perh rather prolix. It would be a great improvement in this and the following book the figures were shaded, and, when needful, were repeated on the other side of page. I suppose that the using of A, B, C, etc., A′, B′, C′, etc., or else a, b, c, in the same figure, is all right; but, when many such letters are used, it beco very confusing. 7. (p. 248) An ingenious method of determining the radius o sphere. 8. In many cases I would have given additional demonstrations, in orde train the taste, as well as the logical faculty of the students, by giving them opportunity of comparing one demonstration with another, and determining t relative beauty.

The exercises amount to 376, referable to the several books and sections. But, stead of the learner being left to solve them, or flounder hopelessly through them is helped by diagrams, suggestions, etc., according to the difficulty of each—the l becoming less full and frequent as his expertness is supposed to increase; he is n enervated by the pernicious smoothing down of difficulties which he might have c quered, nor demoralized by discouraging failure of his best efforts for want timely hint.

The work concludes with a section on what the author calls Modern Geometry, or the properties of transversal lines, which I have not yet read, but the use of which, in a professedly elementary book, I somewhat doubt. T. E. S.

THE NATIONAL MUSIC TEACHER: A Practical Guide in Teaching Vocal Music and Sight-Singing to Youngest Pupils in Schools and Families. By LUTHER WHITING MASON. Boston: Published by the New England Conservatory of Music. 1870.

Mr. Mason, formerly a very successful teacher of music in the public schools of Cincinnati, has, for six years past, been superintendent of music in the primary schools of Boston, where he has achieved remarkable success. He has not only secured results in music unequaled by those attained by any other American teacher, but his methods of vocal training have laid the foundation of the great improvement making in the Boston schools in vocal culture and reading. Mr. Mason is now introducing his system into the public schools of Philadelphia, having been engaged for the purpose by the school authorities after a committee had visited the Boston schools. It will, therefore, be a sufficient commendation of Mr. Mason's manual to say that it is a clear and practical presentation of the author's method of teaching music to young children,—the forty-two illustrative lessons, which it contains, being transcripts of the actual lessons given by him in the schools. It also contains choice songs with accompaniments. The "Music Teacher" accompanies a "First Music Reader" containing an admirable course of exercises for the youngest pupils.

TECHNICAL INSTRUCTION. Special Report of National Commissioner of Education, Washington, D. C.

In January last, the House of Representatives directed the Commissioner of Education to communicate to Congress all important information in his possession with reference to the existing system of public education in the District of Columbia, and also respecting Technical Education. At the time Dr. Barnard's connection with the office ceased (March 15th), he was not prepared to submit either of these reports called for, but he has since partially completed the first report, and a few copies have been printed to meet the calls on the Commissioner for information on this subject. The incomplete report contains pages 33 to 786 inclusive of the report projected, and we are informed that its publication will depend on the public demand for it. The part of the report printed is devoted to technical institutions in European countries on the continent, and the chapters omitted are to relate to Great Britain and the United States. The past ten years have wrought very great changes both in the extent and character of technical education in Europe, and, if this report presents its *present* condition, we hope it may be soon completed and published. The subject is exhaustively treated, and the report contains information of great practical value.

LIFE IN UTAH; or, The Mysteries and Crimes of Mormonism. Being an Expose' of the Secret Rites and Ceremonies of the Latter-Day Saints, with a Full and Authentic History of Polygamy and the Mormon Sect from its Origin to the Present Time. By J. H. BEADLE, Editor of the "Salt Lake Reporter." Cincinnati: National Publishing Company. Pp. 540.

We are not sufficiently familiar with the details of the history of Mormonism to decide whether this work is what its title claims for it. It is not only a book of exceeding interest, but it bears the evidence of candor and careful investigation. The progress of Mormonism is one of the marvels of modern times. The book is sold by subscription.

THE LITTLE CHIEF has steadily improved since its first issue, and it begins its fifth volume next month worthy of a hundred thousand readers. It is not only handsome

and attractive, but it is earnest, instructive, and true. We are glad to see that t publishers (Shortridge & Button, Indianapolis) are preparing for a great victory 1871—a decided advance both in excellence and circulation.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

CUTTER'S ANALYTIC ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. Human and Compars tive. Pp. 322. J. B. Lippincott & Co., Philadelphia.

DAVIES' METRIC SYSTEM. Price, $1.50. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

HART'S SUNDAY-SCHOOL IDEA. Pp. 414. J. C. Garrigues & Co., Philadelphia.

LORD'S ANCIENT HISTORY. Pp. 645. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

SYPHER'S AMERICAN POPULAR SPEAKER. Porter & Coates, Philadelphia.

WATSON'S INDEPENDENT SECOND READER. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

THOMPSON & BOWLERS' ECLECTIC SYSTEM OF PENMANSHIP. Eight Numbers. Wil son, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati.

ILLUSTRATED LIBRARY OF WONDERS. Light-houses and Light-ships. Balloo Ascents. Great Hunts. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

REPORT OF THE SCHOOL COMMITTEE. Boston. 1869. Pp. 460.

PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL LAWS AND DECISIONS. By J. P. Wickersham, State Super intendent.

PAMPHLETS RECEIVED.

UNIVERSITY PROGRESS. An Address before the National Teachers' Association, 186 by John W. Hoyt, A.M., M.D. Pp. 80. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

THE JOURNAL OF PROCEEDINGS of the Illinois Teachers' Association, December, 186 Pp. 110.

PAPERS ON DRAWING. Massachusetts Board of Education, Boston. Pp. 51.

PROCEEDINGS of the Pittsburgh Teachers' Institute for the year ending Sept. 187 Pp. 58.

LETTERS FROM THE SOUTH, relating to the Condition of the Freedmen, addressed t Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard, Washington, D. C.

ORIGINALITY OF SPENCERIAN PENMANSHIP. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., Nev York.

DEDICATION OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WOOSTER, Sept. 1870. Wooster, Ohio.

MAP-DRAWING. How, When, and Why it should be Taught. By Jerome Allen, A.M. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

NORMAL TRACTS. I. Numeration and Notation. II. Common Fractions and Can cellation. By Bernhard Marks, San Francisco, Cal.

OUTLINES OF THE COURSE OF STUDY in Methods of Culture and Instruction in th State Normal School at Millersville, Pa. By Prof. Edward Brooks, A.M., Prin'l.

SCHOOL REPORTS.

Report of the Minister of Public Instruction of the Province of Quebec.

Sixteenth Annual Report of the Public Schools of Chicago, Ill. J. L. Pickard Superintendent.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of New Bedford, Mass. Henry F. Harring ton, Supt.

Fifteenth Annual Report of the Common Schools of Maine. Warren Johnson Superintendent.

Annual Report of the Board of Education of New Haven, Ct. A. Parish, Supt.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of Newport, Ky. W. H. Jones, Supt.

ESTELL'S PROGRAMME CLOCK is one of the most useful school inventions of the year It announces the close of each exercise by a single stroke, and it can be quickly set to suit any programme. It is strongly commended by those who have used it.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

Vol. 1. JANUARY, 1871. No. 4.

OBJECTIONS TO GRADED SCHOOLS.

BY J. L. PICKARD.*

In a former article some suggestions were presented in favor of a graded system of schools. The general principles therein stated are almost universally accepted, but serious difficulties appear to some to lie in the path of their practical application. These assume shape as follows:

1. The graded system necessarily determines the studies to be pursued, and thereby deprives the pupil of the right of choice, and thwarts the natural inclination or bent of the child's mind. Or, rather, it limits the child in the direction of his greater possibilities, and requires him to devote the greater part of his time to studies in which he can never achieve success. As briefly stated by an earnest objector, "It first ascertains what a child does not relish, and then prepares for him larger doses of the unpalatable food."

2. The graded system attempts to press all minds into the same mold, and thus crushes out all individuality of the pupil. It also confines pupils within the limits of time, and thus requires an even pace on the part of all, bringing the naturally active mind into an absurd rate of progress.

3. It lays out such work for the teacher in such rigid terms and within such prescribed limits as to make him a mere machine, without a will or way of his own.

* Superintendent of Public Schools, Chicago, Ill.

It must be admitted that these objections have some weight as against a collection of systems, but it is absurd to suppose that all are applicable to any particular graded system, for they are in themselves contradictory in certain points. He who would use them all must needs set up "a man of straw" to fight.

The graded systems of different cities and towns have their peculiarities, and present the views of those who have originated them. It is proper, therefore, that before entering upon the discussion of the objections, my own views of a graded system of schools should be presented.

The old figure of a hill surmounted by the temple of knowledge toward which weary children are toiling upward, is as fresh to-day as when I saw it first, more than forty years ago. Then it was rough and rugged. Since that time portions of the hillside have been graded. The temple stands as high as ever, and the valley is as deep. The ascent must be made as before, by step after step, higher and higher. Some have attempted to terrace the ascent, and to keep the pupils exercised upon a level plain until they have acquired strength to jump to the next terrace. Some have prepared a series of inclined planes with resting places between, whence the pupil may survey the ground already traversed and take breath for the next ascent. The latter seems more reasonable, and is accepted as true gradation. A graded system of schools must provide for steady elevation through the effort of the individual pupil, guided and occasionally aided by the teacher. Its foundation must be a course of study embracing such topics as are essential to the development of true manhood, arranged with reference to the natural order of development of the child's mind, containing variety enough to awaken interest and to relieve weariness, and marked off (not divided) into parts for purposes of review and comparison. All the parts must be so nicely adjusted as to impress the observer with the idea of unity. The lines of separation will serve as brief halting places for the pupil, whence he may look back over the ground already traversed, and take courage for further progress. An examination at these wayside rests, will acquaint the pupil with what he has already attained, and, through the consciousness of achieved success, inspire him with courage for renewed toil.

With these premises in view, let us consider the objections as above stated:

1. The public school system has grown out of the necessities

of the State. The State has assumed to prescribe certain studies for instruction in which teachers may be employed at public expense. From the earliest date there has been no change in the permitted list, except by additional studies which experience has shown to be as essential as those prescribed at the very outset. The school systems of the several States have agreed perfectly in regard to the studies essential to the production of good citizens. These systems have grown out of the minds and hearts of true statesmen, who have considered only the public weal. They are the products of the very best minds, and though imperfect as all human productions must be, they present to every child a far safer course of study than any he could mark out, were he permitted to choose for himself. Citizens are wanted rather than specialists. The student may carry his specialty to any extent, provided he lay the foundations of true citizenship in comprehensive culture. The common studies of our schools are important as witnesseth the accumulated wisdom of more than two centuries. The specialist is better for a thorough knowledge of the fundamental studies, and his bent of mind is favored rather than thwarted through an acquaintance with reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, history, and physiology. The inter-dependence of different faculties of our intellectual being makes the harmonious culture of all a necessity. The inter-relation of all fields of thought makes acquaintance with each essential to the success of any one who would traverse thoroughly and successfully any one field. Again, it must be remembered that but few become specialists. The large majority will be simply citizens of more or less influence in proportion to their general intelligence, and "the greatest good of the greatest number" must be our motto. True education looks to the ultimate good rather than to the immediate desire of the pupil. If a morbid appetite demands bonbons and sweet-meats alone, a wise physician would prescribe a little wholesome bread though it be less palatable. It is absurd to the last degree to suppose that a mere child can determine what is best for himself, and any system of education (if system it can be called) which gives the child the right of choice, will prove an utter failure. The first objection seems to me baseless.

2. The second objection is more worthy our consideration. If by a graded system the individuality of the pupil is necessarily crippled, it should at once be abolished. Webster defines individuality as "the sum of characteristic traits." It is as impossi-

ble for a person to be simply himself as it is for him to be another person. His "characteristic traits" will bear the impress of others. He will be himself modified by contact with others. But a man is not made up of "characteristic traits." He has some traits common with other men. These common traits need a common culture, and such culture common schools are expected to furnish. Common traits deal with material used; characteristic traits with the manner of use. Intellectual material is about the same in kind in all men. The manner of its use distinguishes one student from another. The degrees of difference depend largely upon the amount of material possessed. A common culture may therefore develop individuality, provided it leaves each pupil free as to manner of use of his faculties. Does a graded system of schools necessarily interfere with this freedom of the pupil? Are its conditions such as to demand absolute slavery to one method? If so, then have my experience and my observation alike deceived me. That danger lies in this direction, I frankly admit; but that it is inseparably connected with the system, I stoutly deny. At least graded schools are not more amenable to the charge than are others; for whether or not the individuality of the pupil is sacrificed, depends upon the tact or want of tact of the teacher. Text-book teachers will bind all pupils to method, and that the method of the author. True teachers will encourage the search for and pursuit of better methods, or such as may prove better to the individual pupil. The graded system does not *ensure* better teachers, but it certainly furnishes facilities for selection of those best adapted to particular parts of the work; and, if such adaptation is not secured, the fault lies rather in the administration of the system than in the system itself. Pupils are pressed into one mold only when injudicious teachers bind them to the text-book, and an equally injudicious superintendent makes promotion from grade to grade depend upon acquaintance with the text-book. But neither injudicious superintendents nor injudicious teachers are the outgrowth of a graded system. They may hang as an incubus upon any schools managed by injudicious boards or superintending committees.

Economy and efficiency of administration demand classification of pupils. The rate of progress of the class will depend entirely upon the average ability of the class. A healthy rate of progress is now pretty well determined for a large majority of pupils. Exceptional cases may arise; and I know of no system of schools which does not make some provision for such

cases. It is a question whether the clamor for more rapid progress on the part of active pupils, is not heeded oftener than the ultimate good of the pupils demands. Precocity petted and encouraged may end in imbecility, if life be spared. Most graded systems have too much of the spur and hardly enough of the check-rein. It is well that classes, as a general rule, move together over the course. The very few who are capable of more rapid advancement without detriment to physical or mental health, may, by earlier promotion, stimulate those they leave behind, while other few whose physical condition unfits them for steady progress, may find a class but little in their rear. The stimulus of the class is desirable, since an aggregation of individualities will help forward and, at the same time, cultivate each unit of the aggregate. By far the larger part of those who complain of their children being kept back of their capabilities, base their estimate of ability upon what has been accomplished in one department of the work, forgetting that other departments are equally important if they would secure harmonious development.

3. Teachers who become mere machines in a graded system, would become such in any kind of schools. The work of instruction is about the same always and everywhere. It is easy for teachers to run in ruts, but there are just as deep ruts in the old district school as in the more modern graded school. The teacher who will blindly accept another's method rather than improve his own, is not worth basing an objection upon. Results alone should be required. Methods must be left to the individual teacher. Wise supervision may suggest improved methods, but will never require their adoption bodily. Wise teachers will accept suggestions and improve upon their own methods. There is just as much opportunity for the teacher of a division in a graded school to act with freedom as for the teacher of an old-fashioned district school. In fact, the stimulus of comparison, afforded in a graded system, should bring advantage to the former. Side by side several are doing the same work. Each strives to find the shortest and surest road to success. The routine of a part of the course is no duller than the round of the whole. It may require more frequent turns, but, if so, it affords more frequent opportunities for the discovery of new methods. The live teacher can not be made a machine under any circumstances. If in our graded schools machines are found, they become such in spite of the system.

In closing this hasty sketch, I would recur to the figure of the

graded hill of science. Upon each inclined plane I see children in groups; some near the upper, some near the lower limit. As they toil upward through the ways of language, numbers, geography, etc., the teacher cheers on, now this and now the other group, leading each through the little difficulties in their path, now transferring individuals from group to group as circumstances favor, until the foremost group, stopping for a rest at the line of demarkation, bid her a tearful adieu, and accept with a shout the offered hand of the guide upon the next grade above. The other groups move up to make room for the happy company that have just crossed the line below. These transfers and these crossings are by no means uniform in time, nor are all the guides confined within the lines of any grade. Some accompany the little ones when few in number across the lines, and traverse with them two or even more planes. Others share the plane on which they work with other guides, when many cluster there. All the way from foot to summit may be seen sturdy ones, who have worked their way from group to group, until they have left them with whom they started far in the rear—and all this without breaking the groups or hindering their upward march. Some have dropped weary or sick, but the next group soon absorbs them, and they lose but little time and no ground. Thus onward and upward go the little pilgrims with experienced guides at each step, who are hampered by no instructions save to pass their charges on safely and speedily to the next above them. This is to my mind the outline of a graded system of schools free from any serious objections and possible of realization.

THOUGHTS ON PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.—II.

BY DELIA A. LATHROP.

A third principle, important to be observed in primary teaching, is, "*Activity is a law of childhood: allow the child* TO DO." This disposition of childhood to be doing, is irrepressible. The teacher has merely to solve the question of the direction of this activity. Exercise is the condition of growth, and it is the business of the child to grow; therefore, the teacher should not deprive him of exercise because she is more expert than her pupil. The object of the teacher's work is the child's development and

instruction, and not her own pleasure. Certainly it is easier for her to cut the educational knots herself, than to wait for a fumbling pupil to untie them; but that is no reason why she should do so. Her own ease is not the end she is seeking, if she is worthy her place. If marks are to be made, the child should make them; if pebbles are to be handled or counted, the child should do it; if an experiment is to be performed, as far as may be, the child should perform it. It is worse than folly to ask a child to sit still; the right course is to devise work for him, so that he may be constantly occupied under the teacher's direction. Moreover, she must plan *variety* in his occupation. A child can fix his attention upon one subject but a short time. When he exhibits the first symptom of uneasiness, his work should be changed. "Change is rest." A careful and practical consideration of this principle would answer, without doubt, ninety-nine of the hundred perplexing questions of "school discipline."

Another principle to be kept in mind is, "*Reduce every subject to its elements; one difficulty at a time is enough for a child.*" I believe we, as teachers, fail here much more often than we are aware. We do not put ourselves in imagination in the place of our pupils, so as fully to realize with just what difficulties they have to contend. The primary teacher should live in such intimate sympathy with childhood as to see as it sees, and think as it thinks, and then she will be prepared so to analyze, simplify, and arrange its work as to make the successive steps possible.

As in physics God has arranged that the weak assimilating powers of the young child shall be aided by the vigorous ones of the mother, and so assimilation of food take place and growth become possible: so the teacher, by her own superior strength of intellect, is to adapt the mental aliment to the feeble capacity of childhood, so that, being received, it may be wrought into the understanding, and so become a part of the child himself. In mind as in physics, that which is not assimilated is better not taken. As it is only the digested food which contributes to the growth of the body, and in excess of this is positively a source of weakness and disease: so it is only the truth received, which is inwrought and so becomes subjective, that develops and strengthens the mind.

Another principle by which the teacher should be governed is, "*Let every lesson have a point.*" That is, let there be some leading idea in every lesson, something to which especial prominence is given, and let everything else in the hour's work be so grouped

with it, so lead to it or grow out of it, that association may assist in the memory of the whole.

This, of course, implies a previous plan for the lesson, which in its turn implies previous study for preparation. The lessons of primary teachers are not as carefully prepared as they should be to secure the best results. The younger or duller her pupils, the more thoroughly and minutely should she make herself ready for her class exercises. Having gone over the same subjects many times with previous classes only increases this necessity, because there is such constant danger of dull routine work. Even a column of words in a speller can be made interesting, if the teacher have a care to make it so. Weave the words into a story, so that every child may apprehend the meaning of each one. Having told the story, let the child reproduce it, noticing the words in the lesson, and telling their meaning in the connection used. Think you they are cold, dead things any longer? Each word, as the child goes over it in the speller, or copies it upon his slate, is no longer a mysterious box, beneath whose unlifted lid lies a thought of which he has no conception; but it is an actual impersonation, living, moving, speaking all for him. To-morrow a stanza of child verse may be improvised, a veritable "Mother Goose", if you please; the next day a description of a ride or a walk may be given to introduce to the children the words of the lesson.

I do not say all this is practicable as an every-day exercise in a large school of small children. I mention it merely to illustrate how a little study on the teacher's part will diffuse life through that which, without such preparation, would be unattractive for very lack of life. The *spirit* indicated is not only entirely practical, but absolutely essential to the highest success.

Years of precious time are spent upon reading and spelling in school with no adequate results, simply because so little thought or interest is awakened in them. Let there be an attempt at more careful, conscientious preparation, and we shall find more thought developed and more interest aroused both in the teacher and the taught; and better methods will prevail for every teacher will become a law unto herself. She will work in her own armor easily and effectively where she heretofore has found the donned armor of some revered Saul in the educational ranks an intolerable hindrance. She has neither honored the armor nor has the armor honored her, simply on account of lack of fitness each for the other.

A teacher has no moral right to teach a subject carelessly and confusedly. She ought not—because the children are too small to resent it—to assume the right to hash up a dish of food of "all sorts", and leave them the alternative of "fishing out" something to satisfy the cravings of their intellectual appetites, or starvation. Rather, the meal should be so spread that the beef and the bread may be served in their proper proportions, while salt, mustard, and butter are put in their right relations as subordinate.

But if subjects as familiar as reading and spelling require so much preparation, what shall be said of the less familiar ones, in which the "matter" to be taught, as well as the "method" of presentation, is largely to be determined by the teacher. It is not too much to say, that no such lesson should ever be attempted until she has thoroughly studied first *her subject*, so as to decide precisely *what* she will teach, even to the best expression of the ideas she wishes to communicate; and second her *method*. Every possible stumbling place should be anticipated, and the teacher be prepared to lead in a smooth way. Every dark passage should have been explored in advance, and a means of lighting it provided; every difficulty of every sort should have been foreseen, and a method devised for overcoming it.

It is because the teacher is to lead and not to carry her pupils out of difficulties, that she needs especial preparation. How to develop ideas instead of stating facts; how to lead to the correct application of appropriate terms instead of giving terms arbitrarily; how most skillfully and in the use of least time (for time in a recitation is an important item) to anchor securely the new idea to the one already in the child's possession, are to be determined before assaying to give such a lesson. Even the language of the questions to be asked becomes an all-important matter in the plan. Often a teacher finds herself driven to the wall, or led by her class entirely from her design, unless she is perfectly sure of every step of her work; and more than all, the teacher herself needs the effort of preparation to kindle her own enthusiasm in her work.

If by careful study any earnest teacher will every evening devise a definite plan or method for every lesson she is to present on the following day, during a month, and adhere to this plan in her teaching as firmly as her own personal power enables her to do, I will assure her that, although she will have had a month of toil, possibly of sacrifice of society and amusements, she will have had a month of the purest enjoyment of her labor;

one in which she will have accomplished most both for herself and her pupils—one of the shortest months of her professional experience.

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

No. IV.—Primary Lessons in Geography.

BY WM. F. PHELPS.

Lessons in this subject should be commenced as soon as the child can add and subtract numbers whose results do not exceed ten. The pupil will probably be reading in the primer introductory to the first reader.

For the first two weeks the class should be exercised in "patterning" or arranging three or more objects upon a table in imitation of the teacher. This should be followed by the same exercise from memory. Let the teacher locate or place three or more objects in different positions upon the table, and direct the children to observe them closely. Next disarrange the pattern, and ask the pupils to rearrange the objects from memory.

During the succeeding two weeks give ideas of and terms describing relative position; as, in, out, upon, under, inside, outside, beside, between, before, behind, beyond, under, over, against, and opposite. This can be done by the use of suitable objects, and by noticing the parts of the room, their relation to each other, and the relation of the room to objects outside.

After the idea of *relative* position is well understood, *determined* or *actual* position may be considered, and the cardinal and semi-cardinal points of the compass may be taught. Proceed in this order: Show the necessity of having positions or directions *that never change.* Talk and question the children about the place or direction in which the sun rises each morning. Give the term *east.* Require that it shall be spelled and written upon the slates. In a similar manner give ideas of west, north, and south, with the terms and relative positions; as, the east is opposite the west, the north is opposite the south, etc.

These terms may now be applied by the children in describing the positions of things in the room, the direction of their homes and of public buildings from the school-house. Proceed similarly

with the semi-cardinal points. And here, let me remark, that some teachers advise that the representation of these points upon the blackboard and slates should be taught at this stage; but experience has proven that it is better to make that exercise the initiatory step to map-drawing, to follow the lessons upon the physical features.

A month can now be spent profitably in lessons upon the physical features in the immediate neighborhood of the school. In conducting these exercises, *make a constant endeavor to avoid telling the children what you can lead them to discover for themselves.* In most localities, brooks, rivers, ponds or lakes, hills, valleys, plains, and marshes are found. The children should be required to describe as many of these as they see daily, in their own simple language; as, "A brook is a little stream." Other names for brook may be taught, such as creek, run, and rivulet. A run is a larger stream than a brook. There is land under the water: it is the *bed of the stream*, the brook or river. There is land on each side which the river washes; that land is called the *banks* of the river. If you should throw your hat into the river, it would be carried away, because the water moves. The moving of the water makes the *current.* The river has a current, etc. Write on the blackboard the most difficult words used in the recitation. *Give only as much matter for each lesson as the children can readily write upon their slates from memory.*

The next step would be the introduction of map-drawing, which should be commenced by representing the top of a table with two or more objects upon it, first from sight, then from memory. Then represent the school-room, the school-yard, the cardinal and semi-cardinal points of the compass; drawing the school-room to a scale, say of one inch to a yard, or one-half inch for a yard. Draw the school-yard by a scale after actual measurements; a map of the city or town with its surroundings; a map of the county, and lastly of the state, locating in each case the principal objects and points of interest in their relative positions. The diagrams of the town, city, county, and State should be thoroughly developed in regard to relative size, boundaries, surface, lakes, rivers, mountains, larger cities, population, productions, industries, etc.

It is scarcely within the province of a primary course, to carry a child beyond the drawing of the school-yard. By that time the class should have completed the first reader, so that the map

of the city would be among the first lessons in the secondary course.

The foregoing is but a rough sketch of an admirable plan for introducing the subject of Geography to a class of beginners. It avoids the use of text-books in the earlier stages of this important study, and invests it with a freshness and interest that will be felt to the end of the course. It has been repeatedly tested, with perfect success.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

BY GEO. S. ORMSBY.*

The human mind is restless. The mind of the teacher is not an exception to the general rule. New and more perfect methods are demanded in all matters of science in which he is called upon to give instruction. A few years ago there was a wide spread dissatisfaction in reference to the matter of geographical teaching. This spirit brought forth a number of valuable text-books on this important subject.

A similar dissatisfaction has prevailed in reference to the subject of English grammar. Something better has been demanded, and numerous pens have been busy in the endeavor to supply the demand, but with a result not so favorable; for each new book that each dissatisfied teacher has given to the public, seems but to add to the difficulties apparent before. English grammar is the same uncertain and, to the child, meaningless science—if indeed it be called a science—that it ever has been.

Is there or is there not an English grammar? That is the question. Is the English language a grammarless tongue, as some learned men have maintained, or has it such laws as will justify us in the assertion that it has a grammar?

The fact that learned men, whose opinions on this subject are eminently worthy of consideration, have affirmed that the English language is a grammarless tongue, is a significant one, and should lead us seriously to inquire for the cause. The statement is a sweeping one, and more boldness is required to make it than ordinary minds possess, and yet, as these minds regard it, it is evidently true.

* Superintendent of the Public Schools of Xenia, O.

It would require not much less assumption on the part of any one to affirm, that there is not one written grammar that presents the whole truth on this important matter; and yet no one can deny this affirmation, unless he is ready to take the position that some one author is right in all respects and all others are wrong. Surely no one, not even the author himself, will assume such a position as this.

Grammar is a record of the laws which control the use of language. There have been many authors of Latin and Greek grammars, authors of other ancient and of modern languages,—works, some of greater and some of less merit; but not one of these works has been judged as to whether it did or did not set forth truly the laws of the spoken or written language of which it treated.

Bullions's Latin Grammar may be more meritorious than Andrews & Stoddard's, or the latter may be better than the former; Harkness' may be better than either,—not because the one sets forth more truly than the other the principles and usages of the Latin language (all Latin grammars that have been published are doubtless equally true in this respect); but one is chosen rather than another on account of better plan, better arrangement, greater clearness of statement, more lucid illustrations; or something of a minor nature, rather than a radical defect in recording the laws of the language. Not so with English grammars. Here we find differences not only in statement, arrangement, and illustration, but in opinion and judgment on the law itself.

When we select a Latin or Greek grammar, we ask what author sets forth the truth most clearly and in the most concise form; but when we choose an English grammar, we ask what author sets forth the truth.

All Latin grammars record six cases to the Latin noun; and this is but the record of a fact. But there is no such record with respect to the case of the English noun. The fact in English is as patent as in Latin. There is a case, or a certain number of cases, in English; and the record may be made as truly in the one as in the other, if grammarians only knew what that case or that number of cases is.

One writer says the English noun has no case, another says it has one, another gives it two, another three, another an indefinite number; each claiming to be right and to set forth true grammatical law. Why this difference? The answer to this question

must be found in the answer to this other question, What is case?

There is a truth, and there is an error, in all or nearly all of the definitions of case that have been given. It has been variously defined as a form, a relation, a condition; but it has been treated chiefly as a form, or an inflection—a variation of termination.

Let us suppose that case is defined as a relation, and then with this definition apply the following rule, viz: "The subject of a finite verb *must* be in the nominative case." Case is a relation, but the word *must*, in the rule, implies that case is a form. If a noun sustains the relation of subject to a finite verb, it can not in the same sentence sustain any other relation to it. It *is* in the nominative case. It can be in no other, and there can be no propriety in saying that it must be in the nominative case. Such an expression is equivalent to the expression—if it is in the nominative case, it *must* be in the nominative case.

There is no difference of opinion among Latin grammarians as to the disposition of the Latin infinitive; but one English grammarian makes the word *to* a part of the verb, while another regards it as a preposition whose office is to govern the verb: thus, in the sentence, Pupils love to study, the word *to* is a preposition governing the infinitive verb study; but we are left to conjecture what meaning is attached to the word *govern* as used in this connection.

Again, among Latin grammarians there is uniformity of view with respect to the number of genders in the Latin language; but in English, according to some authors, there are but two genders; according to others, three; and, according to others still, there are four.

These few facts selected from many that might be enumerated, justify us in asking most seriously whether there is any certain truth respecting English grammar. If there is, may we not with equal propriety ask, who has presented it, and where can it be found? If the learned writers on this subject can not agree on the fundamental principles, or if they fail to present the truth, which may be fairly assumed, how profitless it is to send the weary pupil on an exploring expedition, into this wilderness, simply that he may search out the well-beaten paths, in order that he may have the satisfaction of knowing that he possesses the same knowledge that his teachers did, and that his errors are no greater than those of him who first proclaimed them.

IT'S BOOKS.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

A phrase familiar to my ears in boyhood was that which stands as caption of the present writing, "It 's books." Whether the expression be narrowly provincial or not, whether or not it has passed out of use in the rural districts, I do not know. We juveniles in the quiet precincts of old Ridgeville (a village fondly remembered as the scene of my first school-going) meant by saying "It 's books," that the hours of study and recitation had begun, that play was over, that, to use another terse idiom, school had "took up." I remember pedagogues who used to call us in by rapping sharply with a ferule on the window sash, and others who sent messengers to the play-ground to tell us *it was books.* Then came the advent of teachers' hand-bells.

On the morning of the first opening of the city schools in autumn, the streets present a lively and suggestive picture. The school board's official announcement that it will be books on a stated Monday, produces a flutter of preparation among the school goers, and no little stir and anxiety among the school senders. The various employments of vacation are cut short. The children's wardrobes are overhauled, repaired, and replenished; Tommy's out-grown suit is perhaps fitted to his younger brother; Lizzie is supplied with a new dress, and has her last fall's hat done over in the style of the season. The anticipated day arrives. Then betimes the boys and girls issue from their places of abode, and flock together laden with baskets, satchels, slates, and books. The sidewalks are musical with the patter of elastic feet. In the bustle and excitement of the occasion, most are full of hope and vivacity. Here and there a reluctant urchin, opposed from personal inclinations to the school system, "creeps unwillingly" and with "heavy looks" towards the unwelcome goal which he considers a gaol. Here and there, also, may be seen a timid, shrinking child, to whom the rush and flurry of the noisy procession is like the rude bluster of March winds to the tender and tremulous violet. At the door stands the mother, her eyes following with infinite solicitude the darling who this day, for the first time, ventures from the all-protecting enclosure of home to enter upon untried scenes. Full of pathos to the parent's heart is this first day of school,—the mother must needs

cry a little in the lonely nursery when her little pet is out of sight. Ah, innocent, ignorant child, rejoicing in her embroidered cloak, proud of her pictured primer, how little can she anticipate the realities of the long road that lies before her. Perhaps she may find an appalling difference within an hour between home and school, between mother whose love-kiss yet lingers on her lips, and Miss Blimber who sets her to learn the twos in the multiplication-table. Even father, undemonstrative as he usually is, betrays some interest in the children's movements on opening day, and he can not help sighing once or twice during the day over his ledgers, as he recalls to mind the air of his five-year old namesake, who, after breakfast, set off so sturdily towards the hill of science, his pocket plethoric with tops and strings, his jacket and pants buttoned together around his waist.

Miss Blimber,—Professor Feeder,—think of mother and father this day, and fancy yourselves in their place. Then can you partially estimate love's sacrifice, and faintly realize the boundless trust that is reposed in your hands. Do not harbor the thought that parents are not interested in the progress of their little ones. Do not entertain the utterly unreasonable slander that has crept into teacher's books, that men and women care more for their horses and pigs, more for their money and pleasure, than they do for their boys and girls. Nay, there is not one parent in a hundred whose child is not dearer to him than all things besides. When these precious ones are committed to your care and keeping, it is evidence, not of parental indifference, but of a confidence so absolute in the virtue, wisdom, and integrity of those who teach and train the children of the people, that you should thank God for the reputation your profession sustains, and pray Him that you may be worthy of a place in that profession.

It is not the infants only that interest and amuse the observer on the morning of opening day. It is not only Minnie in her A B C's, but also "Almira in the upper class," who studies chemistry, music, and French, and wears a roped and curled chignon; not only little Fred whose mind yet in the soft cartilage state is sorely confused by the simplest object lesson, but also Charles Edward with misty mustache on lip and Latin lexicon in hand; with golden charms hanging to his watch chain, and, as he humbly conceives, manly dignity stamped upon his studious brow. Now roll the private seminary omnibuses along full of lilies and roses that toil not nor spin, and the lilies and roses bend and not

with peculiar sweetness as they meet Charles Edwin, and that linguistic beau moves gracefully on, a taller and a happier man.

Meanwhile, the swarms increase in the vicinity of the school-houses. There assemble the children of the people,—the rich, the poor,—American, German, Irish,—the robust, the feeble,—the beautiful, the deformed,—the intelligent, the stupid,—the virtuous, the vicious;—the children of the whole people. The hour strikes, the bells ring out their summons, and *it is books.* Success and pleasure crown both teachers and taught.

January, 1871.

COMPOSITION-WRITING.

BY W. RICHARDSON.

"I *can't* write a composition! I never *could.*" "But you *must* write one; I can not excuse *any* from this exercise." Reader, did you ever hear anything like that? Perhaps you have heard the following: "Won't you please *help* me write it? I can't think of *one thing* to write." "No, I can not assist you; it would not be your composition at all. You must write it all yourself."

Such expressions are often heard in public schools. Essay writing is a vast mountain over which most pupils despair to climb. They wander about its base seeking a pathway up its declivitous sides, but finding none. In despair they give up, and seek relief by going to some friend who knows the pathway, and begging him to make the ascent in their stead. It is done, but the pupil is down in the same valley as before, and no light has yet reached his eye.

Oh, that dreadful bugbear! It haunts him still, and already he looks forward to the next composition-day. It seems to be the idea of the teacher that the pupil can and must stride at a single step from base to summit.

I can sympathize most heartily with the pupil. We help him in arithmetic, algebra, and grammar. We gently lead him through all the intricate paths, pointing out to him the way, and helping him over all the quagmires and chasms which he finds on his journey; but when composition-day comes, we shut up ourselves and lock the door, as if afraid that a single ray of light would escape.

Do you not remember, teacher, your own experience in your youthful days? Have you no recollection of the fiery ordeals through which you were required to pass? Do you not know what assistance you longed for, begged for? Can you not enter into sympathy with your pupil who suffers now just as you suffered then? Do you not know that it is your duty to lend him more assistance in composition-writing than in any other branch?

But you say, "If I compose for him, it will do *him* no good." You need not compose for him. It is your duty to educate him in this department, to draw him out, and lead him to feel and understand his own power, his own capacity. You must adapt yourself to his age and capacity. That which serves the purpose best in the high school, may be beyond the comprehension of the lad in the intermediate or primary department. Let your food be adapted to the individual.

Grammar and composition can and should be taught in the lowest primary department as well as in the high school. The language lessons of the lower grades are of the greatest importance. The pupil is led to have ideas of his own, and is taught to express himself in appropriate and correct language. This is the very foundation of composition-writing. Neglect it, and, verily, there is a mountain, an almost impassable mountain, before him.

One great excellence of language-lessons consists in their adaptation to any grade. We study language from the cradle to the grave, and, if we are faithful students, we are better speakers and writers for each day's experience.

Take "Cork" as your subject. Go into the primary school and talk with the pupils, adapting your language to their capacity. Exercise your originality and ingenuity in questioning them as to its origin, qualities, and uses. Lead them on from one thing to another, and thus show them how to fill their own minds with thought and original ideas. In a ten-minute exercise of this kind, a complete essay upon the subject will have been framed, which, could their fingers but handle the pen, would put to shame some "children of larger growth."

And this is easy. Only make the proper appliances, and development is spontaneous. There is no mountain to oppose, no obstruction to hinder.

Go to the intermediate grade, and apply the test; the same will be found true. Only open the gate, and say to them, "Up yonder is the way", and their feet are at once "willing." To

day talk to them inquiringly, and guide them in their thought. To-morrow require them to put upon paper the result of their last lesson, and lo! an essay springs into being as by magic.

Go to the high school, and, in the same way, advance more deeply into the subject, whatever it be, and see what greets you. The language-lesson of a few minutes develops ideas sufficient for a volume of essays, and disciplines the mind of the pupil more than the knowledge of arithmetic acquired in a term. All this has been accomplished without any trouble. There has been a pleasure in it, such as the pupil nowhere else experiences.

Composition should be *taught* in every school. It can be made so agreeable that the pupils will rejoice to see the day approach. How egregiously do we all fail in the development of the minds of our pupils! How do we all teach them to perform operations, yet seldom or never speak to them about the development of the very principle they are using! We teach them to eat the shells, but throw away the meat! How long shall we be in learning that the *meat* is the all-important part, without which all else is worthless?

Teachers, let us fathom things. Let us dive deeper, and pluck up more valuable treasures. Let us teach our pupils, not as we ourselves were taught, but as we now feel and know that we should have been taught.

Piqua, O.

HOW DOES JOHN LEARN TO READ?

BY W. WATKINS.

I like this horse. I like his small head.—FIRST READER.

Our John read these words with tolerable fluency till he came to the word head, at which he paused and uttered several singular words, which seemed to have no proper connection with the subject. These words were *aitch e a de.* Having thus assisted himself, he called the word properly. John was satisfied, but his teacher was not. The latter at once began to reflect upon the *how* of John's reading. How did he learn to call these words? If he knew how the child learns, he would know how to teach him. This is one of the most important questions concering primary instruction, and one least discussed.

There are, I believe, three theories offered to account for this phenomenon of John's reading. But, hold! may I not ask the child himself, and settle the question? ——. I have questioned him, but without learning anything. Children can not explain the operations of their minds. John does not know that he has a mind, but give him a book and he knows when to say *horse*.

The old school-master says: "John reads the word because he knows its spelling. He knows that *m-o-r-s-e* spells *morse*, and *h-o-r-s-e* spells *horse*. Reading comes from spelling. He knows the word because he sees in it the letters which compose the word *horse*. The letters are the elements from which he builds the word. It is a synthetic process." Exactly. If I adopt this theory, I must first of all teach the alphabet. The spelling-book must be my main reliance in teaching reading. From this standpoint, my object in teaching spelling would be to teach reading, and my method should be the oral. "Spelling", says the same authority, "is naming the letters which compose a word." I see, too, that, according to this theory, the long words in the readers should be printed with their syllables separated by the hyphen, in order that they may be constructed, or synthesized, from their syllables as the short words from their letters.

The new school-master has another theory, which is this:— John has been taught to analyze the word horse into its vocal elements. He recognizes in it four elementary sounds of the human voice. He has been taught that each of these is represented by a printed character, the aspirate by *h*, the vocal by *o*, the liquid by *r*, the sibilant by *s*, and he has learned that final *e* is usually silent. Finding these characters, he gives the sound of each, and thus constructs the word from its vocal elements symbolized by the letters.

Three things are necessary before John shall be able to call the word horse at sight: 1st. To be able to analyze the word into its vocal elements. 2d. To know the printed symbols of these elements, that is, the phonic powers of letters. 3d. To be able to synthesize the word, that is, to see that the elements *do* form the word.

I should be glad to believe that John has learned to read in this way. It would be a proof of the subtility of the infantile mind as refreshing to the wearied teacher as a flowing well in a dry and thirsty land.

If I adopt this theory I shall first teach the analysis of a word, then that each sound is represented by a letter. The names of

the letters must not be taught to beginners. Spelling is phonic analysis.

But we have a third theory, viz: That the printed word horse is an object, and is recognized at sight just as other objects are. John recognizes the printed word horse on precisely the same principles as he does the animal—in its entirety, as a whole and not as an assemblage of parts. He does not synthesize his idea of the animal from a consideration of the parts nor his idea of the word from the letters. Further, the whole comes first in order of time, for the child knows horse very well years before he could tell a hoof from a stone. The word in its entirety is the unit; the letters are its parts.

If this theory be adopted, we shall teach words first and letters afterward. According to this theory, spelling is of very little direct benefit in teaching reading, and must be taught for its effect upon writing and hence in writing.

We see, then, that there are three theories of how John learns to read, and that these theories necessitate different methods of teaching reading and spelling.

We invite the thoughtful reader to a "brown" study of these three theories, in order to ascertain which of them is founded upon observed facts and sound reasoning, and we shall, in a future number, give our own contribution to the solution of the question.

Middletown, O.

CALLING THE ROLL.

Much time is often consumed in school in calling the roll. The practice has long existed of calling each scholar's name once or twice each day, and the answer "present" or "here" is expected of all in the room. A better method is to assign each scholar a number. At a given signal, scholar No. 1 will call "one"; the next, "two",—each calling his own number until the last. If a scholar is absent, the teacher will call his number in order, and note the absence. Thus the roll of sixty scholars can be called almost as quickly as the number sixty can be counted. If any scholar should call the number of the absent one, the ear of the teacher would easily detect it.—*Ex.*

Editorial Department.

—— Our contributed pages are filled this month with papers of great pr cal interest and value—a pleasing earnest of the good things to come. accept the fact that we have never found it easier to secure the right kin contributions, as an indication that earnest, progressive teachers are intere in this journal. We are happy to announce that Mr. L. W. Mason, Supe tendent of Music in the Primary Schools of Boston, has promised a serie brief papers on the teaching of vocal music in public schools. Mr. Maso unquestionably the most successful teacher of music to children in this coun We have also secured a series of practical papers on the teaching of writin ungraded schools. Miss Lathrop, Supt. Ormsby, and other contributor this number, will favor our readers with more of their excellent papers. pages will continue to give due attention to the condition and needs of ungra schools.

—— Supt. Pickard makes a wise discrimination between those defect the graded system which are due to imperfect administration, and those wh are inherent in the system itself. He rightly claims that the former can no urged as objections to the system. But is the second objection considered a gether a defect of administration? We can not rid ourself of the convict that it is, to some extent, an inherent difficulty of the system—one which wisest and most skillful administration can not wholly overcome. Pro teaching and gradation will, it is true, secure a healthy progress for the gr majority of pupils, and the bright portion of the minority may be cared for irregular promotions; but what is to be done with those who have not suffici intellectual capacity to reach the average standard? They can, it is true, over the studies of the grade again, and this will carry some of them over next promotion test, but not all. There are minds which no amount of rep tion can bring up to an average thoroughness. Such pupils usually "lod in our grammar schools, being unable to meet the requirements for promot to the high school. They soon become discouraged, and drop out of sch altogether, or, if able to do so, go to private schools. In nearly all large ci there are private schools which are largely sustained by pupils who can meet the more thorough standard of the public schools. What is the practi remedy for this defect? How are these unfortunate and exceptional pupil be cared for? In St. Louis a special school for this class of pupils has b established, and the experiment promises to be a success. Is there anot remedy? But we do not refer to this as an objection to graded schools. T have advantages which more than compensate for this defect, even if it not be wholly remedied.

—We fully agree with Mr. Pickard that the third objection to graded schools is a fault of administration, and we wish to emphasize these four sentences in his able and satisfactory answer: "Results alone should be required. Methods must be left to the individual teacher. Wise supervision may suggest improved methods, but will never require their adoption bodily. Wise teachers will accept suggestions and improve upon their own methods." This is a strong indorsement of the views expressed by us in a recent editorial, and it presents a vital truth. A graded school system need not sacrifice the professional freedom of the teacher, and it need not limit this freedom except by the limits of the teacher's work, which are determined by the grade of that work. We are glad that these views are so fully accepted by superintendents and teachers of large experience and eminent success. One of the first lady teachers in the country writes: "What you say in your article on the 'Freedom of the Teacher', is *true*. I could not teach under one of the syllabuses which are so popular of late. They are death to all originality or ambition, which a young teacher may chance to possess. I am confident that had I begun there, I should have ended where I begun." This objection lies, of course, against *prescribed* syllabuses, and not against those which are merely suggestive.

—There lies before us an article on "Practical Education", published in the interests of one of the so-called "business universities" of the country. It stoutly charges our schools and colleges with impracticability, and affirms that the most frequent result of devoting years to a college routine is the unfitting of a young man for the practical business of life. This failure to impart practical power is attributed not so much to what is studied as to the method. It is admitted that a person can have no better discipline than that secured in the right mastery of the languages, ancient and modern. What is needed is the practical application of knowledge as it is acquired, and this is claimed to be the superiority of business schools. The student applies what he learns to the practical details of business, and it thus becomes useful power. It is not our present purpose to examine the claims of business schools, but to raise the inquiry, whether these sweeping charges against colleges and other higher schools are true. If a liberal education is "a positively disqualifying culture", the facts of business life ought to show it; but they show no such thing. Divide business men into two classes, those who have attended college and those who have not, and it will be found that a much larger per cent. of the former than of the latter succeed, and that a much larger per cent. of the latter than of the former fail. If our observation is worth any thing, that young man makes a serious mistake, who turns away from a possible thorough education to take a short-cut, business course. The great practical want of business men, as a class, is a broader and more thorough education. It is not claimed that our school and college courses are the best possible, but it is most confidently affirmed that their mastery is not a waste of time and effort, even as a general preparation for mercantile pursuits. The merchant should be longer than his yard-stick.

—— THE importance of a definite course of study for ungraded schools has often been advocated, but the adoption of the plan has made slow progress, even in States which are blessed with county supervision. There seems to be a very general conviction that the frequent change of teachers and the irregular attendance of pupils make a systematic course of study impracticable; and so our country schools are left to struggle on without proper classification or system. In most cases neither the board nor the teacher assumes to regulate the studies or the classes of pupils, the whole matter being left to the wishes, often to the whims, of parents and children. Even when teachers are permitted to dictate the pupils' studies, the plans of successive teachers are so much at cross-purposes that but little system is secured. Have not our older school systems made sufficient progress to permit a more systematic classification? In most school districts teachers are now employed for the school-year, and the school terms are made continuous, as in graded schools. The number of youth who drop into school a few weeks in the winter to read, spell, and cipher, is diminishing, and the attendance of the majority of pupils is quite regular and continuous. Is not the adoption of a general course of study, feasible in all communities where this degree of progress has been made? This question has been suggested by the reception of a printed course of study, recommended by the county teachers' association for use in the district schools of Miami county, Ohio. The course covers a period of six years of three terms each, and presents quite a full syllabus of both the matter and the method of instruction—too full for adoption, but very suggestive to teachers. The course closes with the following suggestions to teachers using it:

1. Teach one thing at a time, and make practical application of that daily.
2. Do not teach a definition until you have given the facts out of which it is to be made.
3. Always develop the idea before you give the name.
4. Do not make a practice of reading the lesson beforehand for the pupil.
5. Do not allow a pupil to read until he can utter each word at sight.
6. Assign short lessons, and do not leave them until mastered; pay more attention to the manner than the amount accomplished.
7. In arithmetic let the rule be the last thing learned before leaving the subject.
8. Under all circumstances when a word is used incorrectly, require it to be corrected at once.
9. Tell a pupil nothing which he can readily find out himself.
10. Do nothing for a pupil which, by a reasonable amount of effort, he can do for himself.
11. So direct the pupil that the process shall be of more value than the truth to be learned.
12. Aim to be full of the subject before you attempt to teach the pupil. Try to know more than is found in your text-book.

—— WE recently listened to a very interesting discussion on the value of oral spelling. One speaker made the usual statement that the "crack" oral spellers in the schools of his boyhood did not subsequently spell well in letter writing, and the usual conclusion was reached that, inasmuch as our knowledge of spelling is to be used in life by writing, we should learn to spell by writing. It is doubtless true that many good oral spellers blunder when writing, but it is also true that more good oral spellers spell well with the pen. The first fact is clearly due to carelessness or inattention, for every one who can spell a word

correctly orally, can write it correctly if he gives proper attention to the effort. What is needed to spell well on paper is (1) a knowledge of the orthography of the words used, and (2) the habit of attending to their orthography when writing them. The knowledge may certainly be gained by oral spelling; the habitual attention may require practice in writing. These facts seem to indicate that the most efficient mode of teaching spelling is by uniting the oral and written methods, and we believe that this view is sustained by experience. Moreover, the oral exercise not only imparts a knowledge of spelling, but it is an admirable drill in orthöepy and articulation. It is also an aid to reading. The frequent pronunciation of combinations of letters in syllables is a great help in pronouncing new words. The written method not only secures attention, but it trains the eye in the accurate observation of written words, which is of great value in detecting errors in spelling To the properly trained eye, a misspelled familiar word "looks wrong."

—— A CORRESPONDENT of the *Illinois Teacher*, Mr. E. W. Gray, wrote that journal a letter on "the signs of the times from the lookout" of the late National Educational Convention, at Cleveland. Among the signs, which he thought he observed, was a general conviction that Normal Schools had "signally failed," and that teachers' institutes and other instrumentalities must be relied on for the professional training of teachers. This called out a spirited and convincing reply from Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota, who asserted that no public expression of this sort was made at the convention, and that he did not hear "even a hint of any such conviction." The reply concluded with the unanswerable defense of Normal Schools, to which we alluded last month. The December *Teacher* contains a square and short "back-down" from Mr. Gray, who gives this explanation of his misinterpretation of the signs at Cleveland:

"I spent some weeks in Ohio previous to the Convention, during which it was my privilege to meet with a very intelligent body of teachers in Miami county, Ohio, and, at sundry other times, with other distinguished teachers of this State. The impressions I received from them, added to what I received from members of the Convention in private conversation, more, perhaps, than from any thing said in the Convention, led me to the opinion expressed in my article. * * * * * * * * I had always been of the opinion that they [Normal Schools] constituted an important educational instrumentality, and I was surprised to meet with the opposition I did in Ohio."

We confess that this sort of amends does not mend matters much, at least so far as Ohio is concerned. It is bad enough to be without a single State Normal School, but to have "intelligent" and "distinguished" teachers of Ohio cited as opposed to this great and much-needed educational agency, is too deep a professional disgrace. Our only consolation is the hope that our visitor has mixed things somewhat. We have met a goodly number of Ohio teachers in our day, and it is our impression that they would vote with great unanimity and earnestness for State Normal Schools. The Ohio Teachers' Association has often recorded its unanimous aye on this question.

—— IT is a noteworthy fact that while the Catholic Church in this country is persistently demanding a division of school funds and the organization

of separate schools for Catholics and Protestants, this policy is steadily losing ground in Europe where it has had a long trial. In Austria there is a strong movement in favor of a non-sectarian system, and the government schools are rapidly passing from the control and supervision of the priests. In several of the German States the old system of separate schools for Protestants, Catholics, and Israelites, is breaking up, at least so far as primary schools are concerned, and this too by a vote of the denominations interested. The question of abandoning separate denominational schools and organizing mixed public schools (on the American plan) was submitted a few months since in the city of Manheim in Baden. All the Protestants and four-fifths of the Catholics voted for the mixed system, and the next day over four-fifths of the Israelites voted the same way. The result caused great rejoicing in the city. The termination of the present war between France and Prussia will give an increased impetus to this movement, and we predict that Europe will come to the American system of non-sectarian schools before the close of the present century.

—— A GERMAN teacher wishes to know how the time spent with school-children in walks or excursions, can be made most profitable. He says that he has found by experience that such excursions may be made not only very instructive but a source of great pleasure to children, provided they are induced to think by judicious observations. It occurs to us that the teacher who has made such excursions a success, is the very one to tell others how to do it. When the flowers and birds come again, we shall be glad to hear from our correspondent on this subject.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

The advocates of compulsory education are evidently increasing both in numbers and earnestness. They urge it as an imperative necessity. Social order and civil security are threatened by an army of ignorance, which is largely recruited from the host of children and youth, who are growing up in open contempt of school advantages. These unschooled thousands largely fill our alms-houses, jails, and prisons, and their care, prosecution, and punishment burden the public treasury. The sovereign remedy for this great evil is compulsory school attendance. As "Progress" urged in our December issue, the State must reach out the strong arm of the law, and compel parents to send their children to school.

This, in a few words, is the argument for a compulsory system. Respecting the soundness of at least two of the facts on which it is based, we have not the shadow of a doubt. Universal education is a social and civil necessity, and the State has the right to secure universal education by compelling school attendance. The right to tax A to school B's children, involves the right to compel B to send his children to school. All this is clear; and yet we are obliged to

confess a doubt respecting the present practicability of compulsory education in this country. The "strong arm" of the law in a free government is a public sentiment demanding its execution. Without such public support, the law becomes a dead letter, as witnesseth much legislation designed to enforce moral reforms. In this case an unexecuted law would, we fear, be a hindrance rather than a help.

But, whatever may be true of a general compulsory system, there can be no doubt respecting the value of a law to prevent truancy and vagrancy. Many of the absentees from our schools are such in spite of the wishes of parents. They have broken through parental control. An officer, charged with the duty of arresting all absentees from school without leave, would be welcomed by hundreds of parents, and the mere existence of such an officer, in easy communication with parents and teachers, would prevent most of the present cases of truancy, as is fully shown by the experience of those States which have tried the system.

There is another class of absentees from our schools, who are moral orphans. Their parents, criminally neglectful of the highest parental duty, have given them over to the dominion of their own evil natures. They spend their time in the streets, and fast ripen into criminals. It is not only the right, but it is the bounden duty of the civil power, to interfere in behalf of these neglected children. They should be rescued from ruin, and prepared for lives of honor and usefulness. The well-being of society and the security of the State alike demand this. It is far better to multiply industrial and reform schools than to build jails and prisons.

A law dealing wisely with these two classes of absentees would be sustained by public sentiment. It would not be obnoxious to the intelligent advocates of the voluntary principle, and, without invading the much-defended "rights of parents", it would secure childhood in the God-given rights of instruction and control. Moreover, what a stream of juvenile vice and crime such a beneficent law would dry up! What a sum of manhood it would save from hopeless ruin!

THE GRADING OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

Among the measures long urged for the improvement of the schools in the country districts, is the introduction of the principle of gradation. Until this is done, these schools must remain greatly inferior to the graded schools in villages and cities. An ungraded school, composed of pupils of a great diversity of attainments, necessitates too many classes for one teacher, even with the wisest and closest classification. His time is spent in too brief and hurried recitations for efficient instruction. Nor is this all. The inability of the teacher to give attention to classes in the higher branches of study, cuts short the education of many country youth just where a graded system would provide important and needed advantages.

There are three methods of introducing the principle of gradation in country schools, to-wit:

1. School districts (sub-districts) may be so enlarged as to embrace pupi enough for a graded school of two or more departments.

2. Two or more districts, with a primary school in each, may be united, a a central school formed for the more advanced pupils.

3. A central high school may be organized in each township for the mo advanced pupils.

The first plan is feasible wherever the population is sufficiently dense to affo the requisite number of pupils for a graded school without embracing t much territory for the attendance of the younger pupils, who are obliged to the same distance as the older. This condition limits the adoption of t plan to the more densely populated townships and neighborhoods, where i both feasible and desirable. The practical difficulty in the way is the des of every family to be located near the school. This causes an opposition large districts, and often to districts of reasonable size, resulting in the org ization of mere fragments of schools. It is certainly better for a family to from one to two miles from a graded school than to be within stone's thr of an ungraded school. Experience fully warrants the statement that, ot things being equal, the advantages of a graded school, of two departme even, are worth twice as much as those of an ungraded school.

The second plan is practicable in a much larger number of townships th the first, since it permits the formation of sub districts for primary sch within easy reach of the younger pupils, and only the older pupils, attend the higher school (and only a part of them), are obliged to go much fart than they would go under the ungraded system. From two to four of th higher schools can be organized in each township, and thus the difficult distance may be largely obviated. But as feasible as this plan appears adoption has thus far been generally thwarted by the desire of farmers to h all their children attend the same school. This, they urge, enables the o children to take care of the younger (though the older managed in their to take care of themselves), and, when the weather or roads are bad, they be more readily carried to school. These considerations are permitted to weigh the much more important advantages of better schools, and a conseq better use of time and opportunity.

The third plan would seem to be more generally feasible than either of others considered, since it is adapted to a sparser population and is less ex sive. Moreover, the central school of a township may be made of a hi grade than the upper department of a sub district school or the central sc of two or more sub-districts united, thus meeting more efficiently the ec tional wants of young people. The school laws of several of the States vide for central township schools, and strenuous efforts have been ma secure their organization, but so far with little success. The result of n twenty years' effort in Ohio is the adoption of the system in less than tw cent. of the townships.

Several practical difficulties beset the system. The central school is to

distant from many of the pupils entitled to its advantages to permit their convenient attendance. In many townships this difficulty is aggravated by the insufficient number, the location, and the character of the roads. When the central school is supported by a township tax, as in Ohio, its unequal value to the different portions of the township, is almost sure to cause successful opposition. Those who are opposed to the apparent increased expense, and those who live remote from the school, unite and form a strong party against it. When the condition of the roads will permit, these two objections may be largely removed by running omnibuses from remote parts of the township to convey pupils to and from school. This is now done in several towns in Massachusetts.

A comparison of these three methods of grading country schools shows that the first is the simplest and, at the same time, of the most limited application. Experience indicates that its adoption is beset with the fewest difficulties provided the requisite condition of population exists. There are nearly two hundred sub-district graded schools in Ohio, and these have been chiefly organized within two years, and this, too, in spite of our mongrel, complicated township system. The second method has been less widely considered than either of the others, and it has had no adequate trial. The objections to it are trivial.

This brief discussion is sufficient to indicate that the general adoption of the graded system, even in its simplest form, is far in the future. The great difficulty in the way is sparseness of population—the very difficulty that confronts the new school systems of the South, and will seriously retard their progress. A proper division of landed property is an essential condition of an efficient system of universal education. But there is another fact which accounts for the slow extension of the graded system. *It costs something.* This gives increased weight to all other objections, fancied or real. It is true that the sustaining of one or more higher schools in a township would add but little to the cost of the system, but that *little* is the rub. The cheapest system has the most friends on election days.

These defects and limitations in the practical administration of country schools leave an important work for the academy to accomplish. The ungraded common schools can not fully meet the educational demands of country districts, and hence academies are needed to supply better and higher advantages. There is no antagonism between the academy and the common school. The former supplements and assists the latter. It is true that the academy can not take the place of the free high school, but until the latter is placed within reach of American youth, there will be a demand for the former. The true function of the academy is to do what public schools do not accomplish in a satisfactory manner—to supply their defects.

NATIONAL BUREAU OF EDUCATION.

We are very glad to see that the National Bureau of Education is not only winning needed public confidence, but that it has secured the official indorsement and commendation of the President, and also of the Secretary of the Interior, in whose Department it is established.

President Grant thus alludes to the Bureau in his late Message:

The subjects of education and agriculture are of great interest to the success of our Republican institutions, happiness and grandeur as a nation. In the interest of one a bureau has been established in the Interior Department, the Bureau of Education; and in the interest of the other a separate department, of Agriculture. I believe that great general good is to follow from the operations of both these bureaus, if properly fostered. I can not commend to your careful consideration too highly the reports of the Commissioners of Education and Agriculture, nor urge too strongly liberal legislation to secure their efficiency.

Secretary Cox, who has been an earnest friend of the Bureau from the first, now succeeded by Mr. Delano who is also an earnest friend of education, thus speaks of it in his Report:

The report of the Commissioner exhibits the valuable results he has accomplished, notwithstanding the very limited clerical aid at his command. Applications for information were received from all sections of the country, and from abroad. The facts and statistics, necessary to give a full and satisfactory answer to many of these inquiries, have never been collected.

The answer made to the resolution, adopted by the House of Representatives in May last, requiring information touching the progress and condition of education in the Southern States, contains much matter of great value and interest. The publication of that paper would have enabled the Commissioner to distribute, in a readily accessible form, authentic information in regard to the educational condition of that part of the Union.

Congress has not authorized the printing of any of the several reports emanating from the Bureau, and the Commissioner was, until last August, compelled to answer by correspondence the various inquiries that were made of him. Three thousand copies of the "Circular of Information" were, by my direction, then printed. They have been distributed, but the demand has not been supplied.

The act of Congress establishing what was then known as the Department of Education, required the Commissioner to report annually the results of his investigations and labors, together with a statement of facts, and such recommendations as might be considered necessary "to promote the cause of education throughout the country." He has prepared a condensed statement, exhibiting the present condition of education in the several States, and containing statistics which, in a collective form, have never been published.

It is obvious that this Bureau, as at present constituted, bears no just relation to the vital interests with which, to some extent, it is charged. I beg leave to refer to the opinions expressed on the subject in my last report, and to invite for them early and favorable consideration.

We trust these indorsements not only insure the safety of the Bureau, but that they may secure for it the "liberal legislation" so greatly needed. The past treatment of this Bureau by Congress is well-nigh a national disgrace.

There is one danger before the Bureau—the scheme to establish by compulsion a national system of education; but we have too much confidence in Commissioner Eaton's sagacity and foresight to fear that he may identify the Bureau with this unwise movement. His able address before the National Association at Cleveland gave it no approval, though the "exceptional action" indorsed in his tenth specification of national duties, may be construed as granting the necessary power. The scheme will not receive his sanction. No legislation to promote education throughout the country, would be more unfortunate than the passage of the Hoar Bill now pending in Congress. We commend the wisdom of the President in refusing to recommend this measure in his late message. What is needed is national assistance, not national compulsion. The conditional appropriation of $5,000,000 a year, for five years, to aid the South in establishing school systems, would accomplish more good than any amount of compulsion and direction.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

Two difficulties beset every educational reform. The one is to institute it, and the other to keep it from going too far. Teachers, as a class, are slow to adopt a new method, but when they do take hold of it, they are quite apt to make it a hobby. Indeed, most people like to make as much as possible of every new attainment or possession.

This fact is illustrated in the present reform in the teaching of language. For years the schools have been neglecting practical instruction in the use of language, doggedly devoting their attention to the technical formulas, rules, and principles of grammar. To such an extent has this folly been carried, that little children have been put to the study of technical grammar before they could write a creditable letter or the simplest composition. "Parsing" has been one of the over-ridden hobbies of the schools.

The failure of this "intensely stupid custom," as Herbert Spencer calls it, to yield satisfactory results, has created an earnest demand for a reform. For years intelligent educators, both in this country and in Europe, have been urging that composition should precede the study of technical grammar; that synthesis should go before analysis and parsing. They hold that grammar is not a child's study; that the grasping of its abstract principles and generalizations requires a maturity and subtlety of the mental powers, which belong to a later period of school life. These views have at last crystalized into the maxims, "Language before grammar" and "Grammar through language," and the long-needed reform has earnestly begun. New courses of studies are now thickly studded with "Language Lessons."

But with the reform also appears the tendency to push it to an extreme. The hobby riders have on their spurs. Instead of postponing the study of scientific grammar to a later and better period in the course, they are virtually banishing it from the schools. The one idea covering the entire field of vision, is "Language Lessons."

The true interests of education clearly require that the disposition to push this reform in teaching language to an extreme, be resisted as firmly as the reform itself is advocated. What is needed is not language lessons *versus* grammar or *minus* grammar, but language lessons *before* grammar and *with* grammar. When the pupil is prepared to study scientific grammar, there is no study more valuable or important. Nor can it be mastered in a single term. It must be taught as accurately and thoroughly as algebra and geometry, and this will require at least *two years* in addition to the oral and preparatory course. The remark of Dr. Hill respecting the study of ancient languages, also applies here. Grammatical principles are to be reached *through* language, and the facts of language must be taught before their classification. The great aim of the teacher should be to teach the pupil to classify and generalize *discovered* facts, and not simply to commit the results of the author's efforts in these directions.

The true reform is to push scientific grammar forward to its proper place, preceding it and preparing the way for its intellgent study by a practical and progressive course of training in sentence-making and composition. Pupils

should leave our shools not knowing less, but *more* of the principles of grammar, and, to this end, grammar must be thoroughly taught and at the proper time and in the proper manner.—MONTHLY.

PERCENTAGES OF ATTENDANCE.

A correspondent alludes to the want of uniformity in the methods of computing percentages of school attendance, and urges that some uniform practice should be adopted by the graded schools of the State. The present reports of percentages are well nigh worthless as a means of ascertaining the comparative regularity of attendance in different cities and towns, and our only object in publishing them is to make superintendents conscious of the fact. The most flattering approaches to perfection are often the result of sharp figuring and sharper practice. One superintendent only marks absence for three successive days—after that the pupil is regarded as "withdrawn;" another has his pupils "withdraw" if obliged to be absent more than two days; another has pupils who are to be absent, come to the school and report at roll-call, etc., etc.

Our correspondent suggests that a week be made the basis of enrollment, and that every pupil attending school any portion of a week be considered a member of the school for the *entire* week. This would secure uniformity, but would it report the *truth*? Suppose a pupil does not actually enter school until Thursday or Friday, or suppose he *permanently* withdraws on Tuesday, *is* he a member of the school for the entire week? But we do not object to making a week the basis, if the plan be governed by such rules as will secure a record of the whole truth and nothing but the truth. A school register should uot *lie*. Absence is absence, and membership is membership, and, we may add, that tardiness is tardiness, necessary or unnecessary, excused or unexcused.

This leads us to say that the first essential in school records is rigid *honesty*. Years ago when we were principal of a grammar school, the city superintendent adopted the plan of publishing the monthly percentage of attendance of the different schools, with the number of cases of tardiness. The very few cases reported from month to month, by a certain principal led us to make his school an early morning visit to see how the thing was done. The devotional exercises began promptly at 9 o'clock and closed in ten minutes. The doors were opened and some fifteen pupils entered. We remained until recess, and then asked the principal what had caused so many of his pupils to be tardy that morning? He surprised us by saying that pupils who were ready to enter the room when the doors were opened at ten minutes past nine, were not tardy; that he allowed ten minutes for a variation in clocks!

Possibly the reader may call such a practice dishonest, but is it more dishonest than the keeping of a school clock from ten to fiiteen minutes *slow*? The truth is the reputation secured by such questionable practices is not worth the price paid for it. We are glad to believe that the great majority of our teachers so feel and act.—MONTHLY.

MISCELLANY.

—When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—We desire to make this department of the Teacher of special interest and value, and, to this end, we earnestly solicit all information which will assist us in making it a live record of educational progress in the different States. Early copies of school reports, and brief accounts of important educational movements, will be thankfully received.

—School Commissioner Henkle, of Ohio, has done a large amount of traveling and talking in the past six months. He has visited many teachers' institutes and associations, and, in quite a number of the institutes, he has been one of the principal instructors. He is now preparing his annual report.

—The Supreme Court of Ohio has reconsidered and overruled the order to take the Cincinnati Bible case (appealed from the Superior Court of Cincinnati) out of its regular order. This action will postpone the hearing of the case several months.

—The following notice, found in the *Indiana School Journal*, seems to us a little "mixed" and uncertain:

The first number of the *National Teacher* is before us, published by Hon. E. E. White, Columbus, Ohio, the editor of the *Ohio Educational Monthly*. The ability shown in the *Monthly* is guaranty for the character of the *Teacher*. The present number looks well, and gives promise for the future. Notwithstanding these facts, we have some doubts as to a demand that will make such a publication self-sustaining. Two or three years will, however, determine this. *Tempus omnia revelat.*

Notwithstanding this kind caution, so solicitously expressed, the National Teacher will be continued, and we have little doubt respecting the willingness of the *Journal* to exchange circulation with it in "two or three years". We hope that the *Journal's* wish is not the father of its doubts. *Tempus dubitationes dissipet.*

South-Western Ohio Teachers' Association.—This association for the teachers of Hamilton, Butler, Preble, Montgomery, Warren, and Clermont counties, met in Dayton, Saturday, Nov. 26th. The attendance was not large, but the meeting was one of interest and profit. The president, Supt. Watkins, of Middletown, gave an inaugural address on "Graded Schools," in which the conditions of success, including the proper organization, were concisely presented. The statement that different grades of pupils in the lower schools should occupy the same room to secure the influence of the classes upon each other, elicited a spirited discussion, which was participated in by School Commissioner Henkle, and Messrs. Gilbert and Winchell, of Dayton, and G. A. Carnahan, of Cincinnati. In the afternoon, Mr. Gilbert opened the discussion of the question, "What are the best ways and means of raising the standard of teachers' qualifications?" He was followed by Messrs. Henkle, Carnahan, Smith of Dayton, Watkins, Vaile of Columbus, Osborne of Cincinnati, and Hicks of Dayton. The next meeting is to be held at Middletown, the third Saturday of January.

Central Ohio Teachers' Association.—The third meeting of this association was held in Columbus, Saturday, Dec. 3, Mr. Crow, of the State School Department, chairman. There was a good attendance of Columbus teachers, but there were few present from adjoining counties. Among these were Messrs. Hartsler of Galion,

Campbell of Delaware, Welch of Lancaster, McClintock of London, and Nace of Leesville. Interesting and valuable reports were read by E. O. Vaile, of Columbus, on "The Salaries of Lady Teachers"; by Supt. Welch, on "The Teaching of Orthography"; and by Mr. Nace, on "The Organization of Country Schools"—each of which elicited a spirited and interesting discussion, full of good practical points. We regret that we can not give an abstract of both reports and discussions. Miss Cora Richardson, of the Columbus Schools, conducted a class drill in reading, some twenty of her pupils being present. It properly consisted of a "word" drill, followed by the reading exercise. The next meeting will be held in Columbus, the first Saturday of March.

North-Western Ohio Teachers' Association.—The first meeting of this Association was held in Sandusky, Saturday, December 10, Supt. Ross, of Fremont, president. There was a good attendance of the teachers of the towns and cities in that part of the State, and the meeting was a success. The forenoon was devoted to practical exercises by the classes from the various grades of the schools of the city. These exercises included concert-reading by a class of 31; elementary geography, showing how to combine recitation and blackboard illustrations; primary drawing, including the drawing of lines, angles, and figures; language lesson ("Indian Corn,") developed by questions, and each pupil writing a brief essay on the board; map drawing, the western territories drawn by a third-year class; a "lesson from nature," a bird's nest being made the subject of a lesson; map drawing, States drawn with rapidity and accuracy by more advanced pupils; and crayon illustrations by a physiology class from the high school, in which various bones, muscles, etc., were sketched. These class exercises were interspersed with readings and declamations by the pupils. In the afternoon, Supt. Cowdery presented a report on "Moral Instruction in Schools," full of important and timely truths. We have clipped an excellent abstract from the *Register* for future use. The report called out a wholesome discussion, participated in by Messrs. Stevenson of Norwalk, Seagrave of Toledo, Smith of Monroeville, Ginn of Clyde, and others. The teachers of that section are sound on the great question of the day. The next meeting will be held at Toledo.

Antioch College.—In the four years of Pres. Hosmer's administration, $20,000 have been added to the endowment fund, now $102,000, and about $20,000 have been raised and expended for the improvement of the buildings and the increase of facilities for thorough instruction. The laboratory is now adequate and convenient, and a Tolle's Microscope, a fine Spectroscope, and a good Achromatic Telescope have been added to the apparatus. The faculty is united and zealous, and the number of students is increasing from year to year. The *Antiochian*, the sprightly college paper, is published monthly, and for several successive winters the students have provided a course of lectures. The course this season is unusually good.

Lebanon (O.) Normal School.—Prof. Holbrook requests us to say that persons entering this institution at any time, can find classes that will meet their wants, from the beginning classes in the common branches to the highest classes in the advanced course. A sufficient number of teachers is employed to prevent any class from becoming too large, and due attention is given to each pupil. Over forty recitations and drills, each fifty minutes in length, occur daily. He also reports that the number of different pupils, enrolled in 1870, is over 1,200, against 930 in 1869, and with the prospect of 1,500 in 1871. The average term enrollment last year was about 450. The school year is divided into five terms, four of eleven weeks each, and one of six weeks, with a two weeks' vacation in August.

NEW ENGLAND.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The twenty-sixth annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association was held at Boston, Oct. 20th, 21st, and 22d. There was a large attendance, and the exercises, which were chiefly of a professional character, gave great satisfaction. Among the subjects considered were moral instruction, the use of text-books, classical studies, English literature. the cultivation of honor among pupils, the self-reporting system, and the teaching of music, geography, English grammar, and drawing. Several of the papers elicited spirited discussions, and we judge from the report of the proceeding in *The Massachusetts Teacher*, that there was some effort in the direction of "fine talking." On the second day, the Association divided into three sections—high school, grammar school, and primary. The principal topic, considered in the primary section, was "Object-Teaching", its uses and abuses. The discussion seems to have scattered badly. An interesting feature of the high school section was a discussion of the new course of study for the Boston Latin School, in which the irrepressible conflict between the partisans of science and language manifested itself. The last evening was devoted to a social re-union in Faneuil Hall. The most significant event of the session was the introduction of the following resolution by Mr. Philbrick, which was laid on the table for discussion at the next meeting:

Resolved, That for the further development and improvement of our school system, the four following measures are requisite:

1st. Provision for a State Educational Tax, the proceeds of which to be apportioned to the cities and towns according to actual school attendance.

2d. Provision for a more efficient and complete supervision of schools by means of county or district superintendents.

3d. Additional provision for the professional training of teachers, more especially with reference to the wants of the several district schools.

4th. Further provision for securing the universal attendance at school, either public or private, of all the children between the ages of seven and fourteen years.

—BOSTON now employs a School Superintendent, at a salary of $4,500 and horse and carriage furnished; 4 Head-Masters, at a salary of $4,000 each; 1 Head-Master, at a salary of $3,500; 41 Masters, at $3,000; 39 Sub-Masters, at $2,400; 9 Ushers, at $1,700; 1 Female Principal, at $1,700; 4 High School Head-Assistants, at $1,500; 19 High School Assistants, at $1,000; 33 Masters' Assistants, at $900; 60 Head Assistants, at $800; 420 Grammar School Assistants, at $700; and 325 Primary Teachers, at $700—also, special teachers in Music, Modern Languages, Sewing, etc. The average yearly salary paid regular teachers, being $920.

MAINE.—Very few, if any, of the States have made greater common school progress in the four years past than Maine, and certainly no one of the older States more needed a thorough school reform. The State was cut up into fragments of school districts, the school sessions were brief, the attendance was poor, and the teachers were baffled by a Babel of text-books. The first step in the great reform, now going forward, was the establishment of a normal system, including two State Normal Schools, and county institutes aided by a state appropriation (now $8,000 a year). The next step was the organization of a State School Department and, what is equally important, the placing of a live, progressive educator, Warren Johnson, at its head. Then followed, as a natural sequence, the creation of the office of county school superintendent, which was accomplished in 1868. The result is gratifying progress in many directions. The educational sentiment of the State has been aroused and made active. School districts are being enlarged, school terms increased, more children gathered into the schools, and a greater uniformity of books provided for. The institute system has reached nearly every teacher in the State, and the instruction and suggestions received are apparent in many school-rooms. "It only remains,"

as Supt. Johnson suggests, "that the work thus begun be persistently continued under the earnest, prudent efforts of educators, and the encouragement of an enlightened, public-spirited community."

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The disposition of the Keystone State to do things in its own way, is exemplified in its system of State Normal Schools. As early as 1857, the State was divided by law into twelve normal school districts, and any number of citizens in each, not less than thirteen, were authorized to establish a school for the professional training of teachers. When such school is established in accordance with the conditions and under the regulations prescribed in the act, the State grants it an appropriation of $15,000, with the continued payment of fifty cents a week to each normal student in attendance, and fifty dollars to each graduate who agrees to teach two years under this act. Normal schools have already been established in six of the twelve districts, and three more schools will open at the beginning of the next school year. It is believed that the twelve schools will all be in successful operation before 1875. We recently had the long coveted opportunity of visiting the school at Millersville (near Lancaster), which was organized and for several years conducted by Prof. Wickersham, now the efficient State Superintendent. The school is now in charge of his successor, Prof. Edward Brooks, an accomplished and thorough educator. We have visited no Normal School in the country, which more fully realizes our idea of professional training. The professional course embraces both the *Science* and the *Practice* of teaching. The former includes the principles and methods of culture and instruction and school economy. The *outlines* of this course, which is given partly by lectures and partly by the use of Mr. Wickersham's two books, are printed in a pamphlet, making nearly fifty large octavo pages. The practice is provided in the model school, each senior student being required to conduct from two to three recitations daily, for one-half a school year. This department is in charge of Prof. Montgomery, who, judging by the specimens of his work seen in two teachers' institutes, is every inch a true teacher. The Millersville Normal School is attended by over six hundred students (we write from memory,) three-fourths of whom are in the normal classes proper. The number of different students enrolled in 1869–70 was 1,126. The corps of instructors includes twenty-two teachers, not counting pupil assistants. If this institution fairly represents the State system, it is a triumphant success; but we infer from what we have heard, that most of the schools now organized would be benefitted were the State at least represented in the boards of trustees. A few remarks respecting the institute system of the State, are postponed to next month.

NEW YORK.—The College of the City of New York, formerly called the Free Academy, has long been an honor to the city. In the ability and learning of its faculty and in the extent and thoroughness of its course of instruction, it has been more than the peer of the great majority of the colleges of the country. Its present faculty consists of thirteen professors, and the number of students in the four regular college classes last year was 359. But this institution, being open only to young men, has never been a complete head to the public school system of the city. This defect has now been remedied, in a measure, by the establishment of the Female Normal College, opened at the beginning of the present school year. It is designed to furnish thorough normal training for girls who wish to prepare for teaching, and also a comprehensive course of higher instruction for those who desire to obtain an advanced or collegiate education—in other words, it is both a Normal and a High

School. The institution has made a very promising opening, and its large success is fully assured. The faculty consists of President Thomas Hunter, who for many years was one of the most eminent and successful principals of the city, and twenty-six associate teachers. The building temporarily occupied is inadequate, but a commodious and suitable edifice is to be erected.——The Saturday Normal School holds its sessions in the same building. The instruction is imparted largely in the form of conversational lectures or lessons, in which both the theory and the practice of teaching receive attention. At a late brief visit to the school, we found the lecture rooms crowded with hundreds of earnest teachers. We heard portions of two practical lessons, one by Asst. Supt. Calkins. This school has exerted a highly beneficial influence on the instruction and discipline of the public schools of the city. Many teachers have here learned the way to a truer success.

HOPKINS UNIVERSITY.—We learn from an exchange that James Hopkins, a Quaker batchelor of Baltimore, worth $7,000,000, proposes to set apart $1,500,000, now invested in Baltimore & Ohio Railroad stock, and his magnificent seat of four hundred acres, called "Clifton", for the endowment of a university to bear his own name. The trustees have been selected, and the plans and specifications made. It is expected that the institution will be one of great promise.

SOUTHERN STATES.

TENNESSEE.—By invitation of the managers of Fisk University, an institution for colored youth, ex-Senator H. S. Foote, formerly of Mississippi, recently addressed the students on the subject of education. The address was similar in sentiment to the one delivered by him before the National Teachers' Association in 1868. It was an eloqeunt argument for universal education as necessary to social order and well-being, and as the only sure basis of free institutions. "Can any one doubt," said he, "that the education and moral training of the whole body of our youth in America, of whatever complexion or lineage, is an imperious necessity, demanding the serious regard of those entrusted with the governing power?" A remarkable passage was the admission that slavery was destroyed "by the special interposition of Almighty God." The eloquence of the speaker was evidently not a little stirred by the fact, alluded to, that Tennessee stands next to North Carolina in the number of its inhabitants who can neither read nor write.

ALABAMA.—In the recent state election, there was quite an unpleasant conflict between the two candidates for State Superintendent of Public Instruction. This seems to have been occasioned by a savage attack on the administration of the incumbent by his opponent. This was met by a strong vindication, with, we are sorry to add, sharp personalities, and the usual results followed. It is to be regretted that the interests of free schools in the South should be injured by these unjustifiable personal conflicts between those who seek the responsibility of their management. This sort of work should be left to politicians, and the less they do of it the better for the public good.

NORTH-WESTERN STATES.

MINNESOTA.—Prof. Phelps, of the State Normal School at Winona, writes: "We have received official notice from the state land office that we have a *farm* of 14,895½ acres, set apart for our use as the first installment of a grant of 75,000 acres made by the legislature of 1865. Each of our three State Normal Schools is entitled to the

same amount. The price of these lands is fixed at the minimum of $5 an acre. This will give an ultimate endowment to each school of over $375,000! This makes the prospect for the professional education of teachers in this State, look well for the future."——Mr. A. W. Williamson, formerly of Ohio, writes: "I am surprised at the willingness of the people of Minnesota to tax themselves for school purposes. In the towns the levy is seldom less than five mills, and some towns have unanimously voted several times that amount for the erection of school-houses. There is a tendency to extravagance in school-house architecture. The feeling is general that the school-house ought to be the best building in the place.

—— The *Minnesota Teacher* is one of the handsomest and best edited state journals in the country. It is doing the cause a valuable service.

MICHIGAN.—Women are now represented in every department of the University of Michigan. There are fifteen in the Medical Department, nine have been admitted as literary students, and one has recently entered the Law Department. The latter was recived by her fellow students with great enthusiasm, and Prof. Walker welcomed her in a brief address. There were 924 students in attendance at the University, October 28th. Its receipts for last year were $83,868, and its disbursements $70,168.—*Michigan Teacher.*

WEST VIRGINIA.—The 29th of November was students' day at Marshall College Normal School. The entire management was given up to the students for the day. They elected a principal from their own number, and also teachers, and all the exercises were carried on in the usual order and with the utmost regularity and decorum.

—— There has been a lively time in Wheeling over the introduction of the science of government and the United States Constitution into the public schools. *Verdict:* Nobody hurt. It gives us pleasure to add that the names of forty-four of the teachers of Wheeling are on our subscription books. Well done.

—— Supt. D. P. Guthrie, of Mt. Pleasant, reports an enrollment of 196 pupils in the public schools, 36 of whom attend the colored school. The schools are doing well.

—— The West Liberty Normal School, F. H. Crago, principal, closed its fall term the week before Christmas with a public examination of all the classes. The school is making good progress.

BOOK NOTICES.

ELEMENTS OF ASTRONOMY. By J. NORMAN LOCKYER. American Edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

This work is mainly intended for use in schools,—but, as the author suggests, it may interest "children of a large growth." Although but a 12mo. of 312 pages, it contains a great amount of valuable matter; much more than the size of the book would indicate. There is this peculiarity about English text-books of all grades which it would be well for American authors to imitate. The treatment of the subject is stripped of all unnecessary verbiage, and thus a small amount of space is made to contain a large amount of fundamental and important matter. Such a book requires competent teachers, and there are certainly a few of these in this country. The volume in question is written upon a somewhat unusual plan; a plan quite opposed to that upon which most of our American text-books have been prepared. Instead of studying from the earth up to the stars, the author begins with the stars and leads us back to the earth. The pupil is first taught the solar system as it *is*. Afterwards

in the latter part of the book, the solar system as it *seems* to be, is discussed. The usual method is to proceed from the apparent motions of the heavenly bodies to their real motions; in this volume the reverse is the case. The author says that his method can be objected to on the ground that it reduces the mental gymnastic to a minimum, but that his object has been to give a connected view of the whole subject, rather than of any particular part of it. After a discussion of Stellar Astronomy and the Solar System, its real and apparent phenomena, there follow chapters on time, astronomical instruments, the results of the Spectrum Analysis, and universal gravitation.

The mechanical execution of the work is excellent. The illustrations are plentiful and superb, including a large colored plate containing spectra of the sun, stars, and nebulæ. The best feature of the book is, that it comes from the hand of a master. Its author is one of the most prominent and promising of English astronomers, and one feels a satisfaction in reading and a security in accepting the results of his investigations.

First Lessons in Language and Composition: Designed to Cultivate the Art of Expression. By W. E. Crosby and P. W. Sudlow. Davenport, Ia.: Griggs, Watson & Day. 1870.

We have long felt that there was a demand for a teacher's manual, presenting fully and concisely a well graded series of language lessons for primary schools, and we welcome this successful attempt to meet it. All other elementary works on composition, which we have examined, are based largely on technical grammar, and hence are not adapted to primary classes. The course of instruction here detailed precedes and prepares for the study of grammar. The work bears on its face the evidence that it is the fruit of actual experience—that its authors have practically given "first lessons" in language to little children. We commend the little manual to all primary teachers, and we hope that thousands may test its merits.

A Smaller History of English and American Literature. For the Use of Schools. Edited by William Smith, LL.D., and Henry T. Tuckerman. New York: Sheldon & Co. 1870.

This work has been compiled chiefly from "Shaw's Manual of English Literature"—a standard treatise of great popularity, published by the same house. It is smaller than the "Manual" and is designed to serve the purpose of an elementary text-book for schools. A large part of the space is devoted to the more eminent of English authors, not including those now living, and the character of the editors is an assurance that they have made a wise selection and classification. The work is accompanied by a handsome volume of "Choice Specimens of English Literature,' which gives choice examples of the writings treated of in the "History." Both works seem to us well-adapted to high-school and academic classes.

Bartholomew's Drawing-Books. New Series. Nos. 4 and 5. New York: Woolworth, Ainworth & Co.

We have strongly commended these admirable Drawing-Books, and the new numbers before us but highten our good opinion of the series. The lessons in No. 4 present such familiar objects as tables, chairs, barrels, cooking utensils, etc.—an excellent series of exercises in perspective. No. 5 presents fruits and flowers—a simple and yet beautiful series. All the lessons of both books are fully explained on the cover. A great excellence of these numbers, as well as of the series as a whole, is their fine adaptation to the wants of common schools.

Scribner's Monthly is "Hours at Home," "Putnam's Monthly," and the "Riverside Magazine" combined chemically under the skillful manipulations of Dr. Holland. The result is a *new* compound, partaking of the nature of neither of the

constituent elements. *Scribner's Monthly* is a delight to the eye. Its large a handsome type and its numerous and beautiful illustrations honor American typo raphy and art, and comfort those who wish to read in their old age. The conten of the three numbers issued show the literary taste of the editor and promise a lar success. "Live Topics" are a characteristic and valuable feature.

LITTELL'S LIVING AGE, advertised in this number, is unquestionably the best of t the "eclectics." It presents *weekly* the best literature of the European quarterli monthlies, and weeklies, with a completeness and freshness that leave little to desired. The ablest living writers in all departments are constantly represented its pages, and all who desire to keep pace with the literary and scientific progress the age, will find it an admirable means to this end.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

VON STEINWEHR'S ECLECTIC SERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES. I. The Primary Geograph II. The Intermediate Geography. III. The School Geography. Wilson, Hinl & Co., Cincinnati.

STRELE'S FOURTEEN WEEKS' COURSE IN GEOLOGY. Pp. 280. A. S. Barnes & C New York.

BASKERVILLE'S ENGLISCHE SPRACHE. Pp. 318. E. Steiger, New York.

SONREL'S BOTTOM OF THE SEA. (Illustrated Library of Wonders.) Pp. 402. Charl Scribner & Co., New York.

TIMANUS'S INFANT CLASS. Pp. 108. 75 cts. Adams, Blackmer & Lyon, Chicag

UNITED STATES PATENT LAWS with Instructions for Obtaining Patents. Munn Co., New York.

WIKER'S PARADISE OF CHILDHOOD. Four Parts. Milton Bradley & Co., Springfiel Mass.

REPORTS AND PAMPHLETS

Annual School Report of Kentucky. Z. F. Smith, Supt.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of Brooklyn, N. Y. J. W. Bulkley, Supt.

Report of the Public Schools of Oberlin, O. E. F. Moulton, Supt.

Proceedings of Chester County Institute, Pa. 1870.

Tenth Annual Report of Quincy, Ill. J. W. Brown, Supt.

Report of the Public Schools of Oberlin, O. E. F. Moulton, Supt.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of St. Louis, Mo. W. T. Harris, Supt.

School Laws of the State of Maine.

Report of the Public Schools of Decatur, Ill. E. A. Gastman, Supt.

CATALOGUES.

Howard University, Washington, D. C. Maj.-Gen. O. O. Howard, President.

Pennsylvania State Normal School, Millersville, Pa. Prof. Edward Brooks, Prin

Cook County Normal and Training School, Englewood, Ill. D. S. Wentwort Principal.

State Normal School, Emporia, Ks. L. B. Kellogg, Principal.

Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio. Rev. James H. Fairchild, President.

Manual of the Normal College of the City of New York. Prof. Thomas Hunte President.

—— Messrs. Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co., New York, have sent us two of the Patent School Slates. They are made practically noiseless by four rubber balls cushions which are securely fastened on the four corners, one to each. These cush ions also prevent the marring of the desk by the slate-frame. The slates are ligh and neat, and they can not fail to be very popular.

THE

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E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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HOW TO TEACH PENMANSHIP IN UNGRADED SCHOOLS.

BY L. S. THOMPSON.*

There should be a fixed time of the day for the writing exercise. Where a choice can be made, choose some time in the afternoon, neither too near the close of school, when the pupils are impatient to be excused, nor directly after exciting play or exercise. One-half hour each school day will be sufficient, if the time is judiciously spent, and other lessons are not allowed to encroach upon it.

WRITING MATERIALS.

It is very desirable that pupils be supplied with the best writing materials, especially *pens*, *ink*, and *paper* or *copy-books*. All should use the same kind of pens and ink. To insure uniformity, it may be best, in many circumstances, for teachers to keep a supply of pens and ink on hand. The ink should be black when applied to the paper. Acid inks and writing fluids are not adapted to school use. The pens should be rather fine, smooth pointed, and flexible. Each pupil should be supplied with practice paper, or an exercise book, besides the copy-book; also with a piece of thick blotting paper, three by six or eight inches, and a pen-wiper.

CLASSIFICATION.

A proper classification will save much time to the teacher. All the pupils of an ungraded school may be placed in two classes, or divisions. In order to make this separation for the best inter-

* Teacher of Penmanship in the Public Schools, Sandusky, O.

est of the whole school, require each pupil who can write, to write on a slip of paper all the small and capital letters, or a line or two of poetry or prose, as a specimen of penmanship. After a careful examination of these specimens, place the best writers in the first division, and the poorest writers and those who can not write at all, in the second division. It will not be necessary to seat these divisions separately; for it will be of some advantage to seat the good and bad writers together indiscriminately, and the beginners with those who have made some progress, or even with the good writers.

As the children of ungraded and country schools generally go to school but a few months in the year, select, if possible, such a book for the first division as shall begin with elementary principles and also contain sentences. For the second division, select an elementary book, generally a No. 2, as books are now arranged. Both divisions should write at the same hour, so as to save the time of the teacher and to allow him to give his entire attention to the writing, and also to prevent the desks from being shaken by pupils moving about the room.

While giving instruction in position, pen-holding, and movement, the whole school should be treated as one class, and should be required to conform to the same rules, and practice the same exercises. After the general instruction for each lesson is given, explain the particular copy to be written by the first division, and set them to practicing it. Now, explain the copy for the second division, and set them to writing. As soon as all are engaged in writing, pass around among the pupils, and observe the general faults committed by them. Then require the strict attention, for one or two minutes, of all the pupils in the first division while you show them, at the board, how to correct their faults. When this is done, set them to work again, and call attention to the faults of the second division, in the same manner. Thus alternate from one division to the other, until the writing hour is exhausted.

ENGRAVED OR WRITTEN COPIES.

We are frequently asked this question: "Is it better for the teacher to write copies with the pen, or to use engraved copies?" We have always advocated the use of good engraved copies, for the following reasons: 1st. No teacher can, at all times, write copies fit for models. 2d. It saves the *time* of the teacher, which in an ungraded school, is always very precious. 3d. No child

habitually makes a better letter than the one he imagines or conceives in his own mind, consequently his model should be as nearly perfect as possible. 4th. A child will *imitate* a *perfect letter as exactly* as he can an imperfect one.

POSITION AT THE DESK.

Before the pens are brought into requisition, attention must be given to the manner of sitting. Teachers can not be too particular as to the position of their pupils at their desks. If an unhealthy and improper position is learned at school, it may be carried through the whole life of the pupil. When the proper position becomes tiresome, it will be better to allow pupils to stop writing and rest, rather than to continue writing in a wrong position.

Several different positions are recommended by different teachers; but as the front position is the one adopted by business men generally, we give preference to it for learners.

Require the pupils to sit upright in front of the desk, with the body near to, but not quite touching, its edge. Both arms should be placed on the desk in front of the body, in the form of a square. The copy-book or paper should be placed on the desk so that the horizontal ruled lines shall be at right angles to the right arm, and parallel with the left. The fingers of the left hand should be placed on the paper a little above the line to be written. The feet should rest flat on the floor, in front of the body, and not be drawn up under the chair or seat of the pupil.

PEN-HOLDING.

In the matter of instruction, good pen-holding is of the first importance. We know there are those who attach but little value to this subject. They tell us that they know some particular individual who writes well, but does not hold the pen according to the orthodox method. This is no doubt true, but it is only an exception which proves the rule. We have a few children in school who will become good writers in spite of many disadvantages. But our instruction must have reference to the average child rather than to the young genius. Even the genius, however, will be benefited by proper drill in pen-holding. To secure the highest results, the following general rule must be observed: The fingers, hand, and arm must be so adjusted with reference to the pen, that it shall not be obstructed in the least in any of its necessary movements, and so that both its points shall rest with

equal pressure on the paper, with the holder slanting backward, and always lying in the perpendicular plane which is parallel with the regular slant of the writing.

While it is true that all hands are not of the same size, and all fingers and thumbs do not bear the same relative proportion to each other, yet, in a *great majority* of cases, the above general rule can best be carried out by observing the following particular directions: Place the fore-finger, slightly curved, on top of the holder, from three to five-fourths of an inch (according to the size of the pupil) above the point of the pen. Fix the middle finger a little under the holder, so that the holder will cross it half way between its end and its first joint. Place the end of the thumb, well bent, on the left side and a little under the holder, opposite the first joint of the first finger. The third and fourth fingers should be separated from the middle finger at the second joint, and should be turned under the hand so as to allow the corners of their nails to slide along on the paper. These two fingers must support the hand, and form a movable rest. Neither the side of the hand nor the wrist should touch anything, the wrist being a little above and facing the paper. The top of the holder should point over the right shoulder. These or similar instructions in pen-holding should be carefully given and illustrated by examples, and a correct position insisted on at all times. To confirm pupils in the habit of good pen-holding, much time, at the beginning, should be spent with sliding movement exercises and writing words with the letters well separated.

MOVEMENT EXERCISES.

The first object of movement exercises is to confirm pupils in the habit of good position at the desk and pen-holding, and to train the muscles of the fingers, hand, and arm so as to obey instantly the mandates of the will. The great importance of training the hand and arm can be made evident by attempting to write with the left hand. One's knowledge of form is as perfect for the left hand as for the right. The writing of the left hand is inferior because the muscles are not trained to obey the mind. Both educators and penmen are beginning to understand that the foundation for good and rapid business writing, must be laid in proper position and movement.

To begin a series of movement exercises, require the pupils to sit in proper position, and place the right hand and arm on the desk, with the palm downward. Direct all to slide the right

hand on the desk from left to right, backward and forward, around the elbow as a center and the forearm as a radius. After continuing this exercise a few minutes, and counting "*one*," "*two;*" "*one*," "*two*," or "*right*," "*left;*" "*right*," "*left*," to regulate the movement, direct all to turn the third and fourth fingers under the palm of the hand, and continue the exercise as before. The pen-holder may now be taken in the hand, and held with the top end downward. Slide the holder backward and forward over the paper for a few minutes, counting as before, and then put the dry pen on the paper and move it back and forth, as at the beginning. When this position and movement are well understood, take ink on the pens and use them on the waste paper or exercise book. As perfect curves are not expected at the beginning, special attention must be given to proper position and pen-holding, as these things can be more conveniently learned here than in the regular writing lesson, where the mind is absorbed with the form of the letters. Without illustrations it is difficult to give further directions in movement, but the earnest teacher can easily devise suitable exercises of his own, or they can be found in any good series of copy-books. Five or more minutes of every writing lesson may be very profitably spent with movement exercises.

CREATING AN INTEREST IN WRITING.

The first thing necessary to enlist the interest of pupils in any study is, that the teacher become interested. Some assistance, however, may be obtained as follows: Take specimens of writing, properly dated and signed, of all the pupils who can write both at the beginning and close of the term, or once a month, and preserve them in a book, for inspection by parents and school officers. Another effective plan is to give pupils much writing to do in connection with their other studies, and accept nothing from them except it be carefully written. Showing specimens of good writing from the counting-room, or actual letters written by good business writers, will have a good influence. Also encourage the pupils to write letters, notes, receipts, and other business forms. Let it be understood that when one copy-book is finished, the school will be reclassified; which fact will stimulate the poor writers to try to get into the first division. To those of a practical turn of mind, the utility of good writing may be presented, while to those of an artistic turn, its beauties may be set forth.

ACADEMIES.

BY CHARLES M. PARKER.

About three and a half centuries before Christ, in a beautiful grove, just in the outskirts of Athens, might frequently have been seen a little company of learners gathered about the eccentric old philosopher, Plato. Here was the first *Academy*. Since those days the uses and abuses of the name have become so numerous as to render its import somewhat ambiguous. I propose, however, to take it in its most common meaning—namely, that of "a school or seminary of learning holding a rank between a university or college and a common school"—and to present a few suggestions as to the importance, character, and work of such institutions.

The common schools of our State, especially those of the cities, have, by patient and judicious labor, been brought to a degree of efficiency, of which we may well be proud. Our colleges, too, though far too numerous and therefore feebly supported, are rapidly gaining in thoroughness, wealth, and facilities. But the excellence and strength of these extremes to our chain of schools only makes more evident the weakness of the intermediate links. Though the demand for academic instruction is partly supplied by our city high schools and partly by small private institutions, we have no general, well-established system of intermediate schools. We stand in great need of something corresponding to the *grammar schools* of Massachusetts or the gymnasia of Germany. This lack is felt both in the common schools and colleges. The common schools are often burdened with a few *higher classes* which consume much time and energy that ought to be devoted to the specific work of primary instruction.

The colleges, on the other hand, are troubled with an annual flood of ill-prepared Freshmen, or are obliged to support preparatory classes greatly to the hinderance of their proper work. No wonder, then, that at a recent convention of *college men*, held in Brooklyn, N. Y., for the discussion of *college interests*, the chief topic should have been the establishment of *academies*. In fact, the interest manifested in this grade of schools, by the best educators, is rapidly increasing, and their importance will be doubted by no one who is acquainted with the workings of the present system. The preparatory departments of our colleges are but poor substitutes for academies. They are secondary and subor-

dinate to the college, the interests of which are always paramount. Their teachers are often of an inferior grade. Sometimes they are students of the higher classes, who teach chiefly from pecuniary need, and whose time is too limited to allow them to do justice to the work, however sincere and faithful their efforts. There is not enough attention paid to rhetorical exercises, elocution, spelling, and penmanship; hence the proverbial deficiency of college men in these common but essential accomplishments.

To the student in these lower classes, the dull prospect of six or seven years of hard study presents itself in every hour of discouragement. He is in daily contact with those whose superiority of culture is so apparent as to be annoying to him; especially if it is accompanied with a real or imagined haughtiness. A sense of the inferiority of his attainments causes him to deprive himself of social pleasures, which in turn increases his dissatisfaction. These disadvantages and many others, especially those connected with government, can all be avoided or greatly diminished in well-regulated academies. In fact, if a division of labor is advantageous in ordinary business, it is doubly so in the business of educating.

In the examination of this subject of academies, two topics claim especial attention—namely, their *material*, and their distinctive *work*.

I. *Material.* It should have such a class of students, and only such, as have been thoroughly drilled in the common branches at the common schools or at home. The chief objections to preparatory classes in colleges apply with equal force to primary classes in academies. It is necessary to make the line between these two grades of schools very distinct, in order, first, that the whole time and strength of the teachers may be directed to *academic* instruction; secondly, that the student, on entering the academy, may feel that he is entering a new era in his school life; that, having accomplished one thing, complete and perfect in itself, he is now upon a new field of study, fresh, interesting, and distinct from the old in character and associations.

II. *The Work.* This is two-fold, corresponding to the wants of two classes of students—namely, those who intend to take a full classical course at college, and those whose want of time and means limit them to scientific or business education. The former of these want little else than a thorough drill in Latin and Greek, together with those *general school exercises*, the lack of which is

so often felt by college students. The latter is a much larger class, and has a much greater variety of wants. It includes a great number who have no higher ambition than to secure enough of what they call "practical knowledge" (which means *book-keeping*) to enable them to do business—make money. But it includes also many of the best young people of the land; young people who, though found in the commonest walks of life, are possessed of refined tastes and strong intellects. They are the material from which is to be made up the great mass of our *good society*. They love learning for its own sake; for the confidence and satisfaction it gives its possessor; for the light and comfort it adds to life, aside from mercenary considerations.

They need to form habits of thought and of reading, which will awaken a taste for literature, and thus add a charm to their quiet hours at home. They need the first principles of a number of the sciences, which will be to them a "rosetta-stone," by which to translate the hieroglyphics of nature, and give new interest to common sights and sounds. Last of all, they need some knowledge of moral and mental philosophy to turn their thoughts inward; to enable them to read aright the movements of their own hearts and minds; to discern the tendencies of their lives, and more accurately interpret the actions of their fellow men. In short, they need a comprehensive, thorough, and systematic course of study, which should be the more thorough and systematic because necessarily brief. For all these advantages they can look nowhere but to the academies. Is not the mission of these schools a grand one? Should they not claim the attention and engage the labors of more of our live educational workers?

Denison University, O.

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

No. V.—The Study of Plants.

BY WM. F. PHELPS.

The introduction of elementary botany into a primary course of training is not only desirable, but almost indispensable. Nothing can be more simple, entertaining, or useful, than the earlier steps in this fascinating science. Through its teachings children are led not only to *look at* nature, but to *observe it closely*,

intelligently, and *profitably;* and thus the plant-world will be made to serve its legitimate use, the end designed by the great Creator, that of "leading His creatures through nature up to nature's God." We explain and illustrate the truths of His written word, and why should we do less with His created works?

As an educational instrument in the early period of childhood, botany holds the first rank. It is wonderfully adapted to the mental needs of children in the primary stage of instruction, and if neglected in the primary school, the deficiency can scarcely be supplied during the subsequent stages. "To everything there is a season, and a time to every purpose under the heaven."

During the months when plants are accessible, botany should be made a daily exercise. As leaves are the simplest part of the plant in form and structure, they are the most abundant, and as they can be obtained from early spring to quite late in autumn, it has been deemed best to use them almost exclusively in a primary course.

The first few lessons should be upon the parts of the leaf, as stipules, leaf-stem, blade, midrib, and veins. To begin, place a leaf in the hand of each child. Require the class to observe closely, and to name the parts as far as they are able. When a child discovers a part, and does not know what to call it, allow him to point to it, requiring all to do the same. Then let the teacher give the term, describing it, and write it upon the blackboard. Next let the children spell it, and write it upon their slates.

The difference in leaf-forms will be easily discerned by the children. The teacher should request that they bring to school all the different kinds of leaves they can find. During the lesson let these specimens be distributed, and the pupils asked to find three or more of different species just alike in form. Thus the diversity in form will be made more apparent. After pursuing this plan for three or four days, take up each form separately; as, linear, lance-shaped, oblong, oval, ovate, heart-shaped, orbicular, kidney-shaped, arrow-shaped, hastate, and shield-shaped, dwelling upon each form two or three days, teaching its name, how to spell and write it on the slate. At the same time encourage the children to find leaves of similar form to those examined, to press one specimen of each, to put it into a little book and write the name of the form under it, thus forming *leaf-herbariums* and laying a solid foundation for succeeding steps.

The lessons upon leaf-forms will require a month or six weeks,

after which time the *use of leaves to the plants* may be considered. This will involve several exercises upon the general structure of plants, as to parts and uses of parts. The uses of plants to man and animals, as certain parts of some plants are good for food, for medicine, for clothing, and furniture; and here incidentally the teacher may speak of the goodness of God in providing plants for man and beast.

It will be well occasionally during the lessons to interrupt the usual order, and allow the children to bring in boquets of flowers commonly met with, teach their names and the most attractive methods of arranging them, thus cultivating the taste of the class, and strewing the pathway of learning with these forms of beauty and loveliness.

This charming subject once commenced in the right spirit will grow upon the teacher and children alike, and there will be no lack of ingenuity to pursue it when once the interest is aroused. To all who are disposed to try the introduction of this useful study, let me commend the admirable book of Miss A. E. Youmans, which is crowded with the most useful suggestions on methods of botanical study for beginners.

I again acknowledge my indebtedness to Miss Sara J. Timanus for sketches of all the lessons in this primary course, now concluded.

HOW TO TEACH ADDITION.

BY J. C. GREENOUGH.

Addition is a department of arithmetic second in importance to no other. It is among the topics first taught, and, if properly taught, the pupil may learn a mode of study that will aid him in every department of arithmetic subsequently taught. A pupil thoroughly trained in addition will gain a knowledge of other departments of arithmetic much more readily than one who is not. Again, addition forms a large part of the work of the counting-room.

One mode of teaching addition is to require the pupil to commit to memory the verbal statements of definitions, then of a rule, and then to show the pupil how to apply the rule in the solution of problems. But enough has already been said in the pages of this journal, in condemnation of this mode of teaching,

if indeed it may be called teaching, to render it unnecessary for me now to expose its errors and deficiencies. "*Res non verba quæso*"—things not words I seek—is the utterance of the very nature of the child, and the teacher who attempts to begin the teaching of addition by means of words only, violates the first principles of good teaching and abuses his opportunities.

In a previous paper, I have shown what is to be done in the elementary course, in the adding of numbers expressed by one figure. In the advanced or scientific course in addition, the first work of the teacher is to lead the pupils to a knowledge of addition as a whole. This he should do by presenting an illustration of the process in such a way that the pupils will understand precisely what addition is, and in their own language frame a definition of it.

In order that I may be better understood, I will give an illustrative exercise. The teacher presents groups of objects; for instance, groups of books upon his table:—

Teacher. What do you notice? *Pupil.* Books.

T. What name have we given to one? *P.* Unit.

T. What name to a collection? *P.* A number.

T. Compare the units in one group with those of another? *P.* They are of the same kind.

T. (Putting one group of three units with another of four.) How many? *P.* Seven.

T. (Putting another group of five with the seven.) How many? *P.* Twelve.

T. How was the twelve found? *P.* By counting together units of the same kind.

T. Twelve is the sum of the numbers I gave you. You may now tell me the meaning of the word sum by telling me how we find it? *P.* A sum is a number found by counting numbers together.

T. What did you do with the numbers I gave? *P.* We counted them together.

T. For what purpose? *P.* To find their sum.

T. State now fully what you have done? *P.* We have counted together numbers of the same kind to find their sum.

T. That which you have done is a process. You may describe the process? *P.* The process of counting together, etc.

T. This process is addition. You may now define addition? *P.* Addition is the process of counting together numbers of the same kind to find their sum.

The rule for addition will again tax the skill of the teacher, if correctly taught. But the teaching of the formal rule should be widely separated from the teaching of the definition. By means of problems performed by the pupils under the guidance of the teacher, they should become by practice able to add even large numbers readily before the teaching of a rule is attempted. In many cases, perhaps in most, it will be best to reserve the teaching of the rule until a general review of addition. Knowledge should precede, in order of time, the verbal statement of knowledge. When the pupils are prepared for the rule, the teacher placing the class, or a division of the class, at the board, gives a problem in addition. The pupils having written the figures expressing the numbers to be added, in proper order, the teacher requires them to state what they have done. There will, of course, be a diversity of statement. The teacher can then call attention to the different statements, and notice what is correct and what is incorrect. If no statement given by any pupil is correct, he can, by questions leading the pupils to notice more accurately what is done, derive a better statement. As soon as the correct statement of the first sentence in the rule is thus developed, it should be recorded upon the blackboard by some or by all of the pupils. Other problems should now be begun, and so much of the rule as has been learned, used in stating what is done. In this way, step by step, the rule should be developed, recorded, and applied, until the rule is completed. So made, the rule is the work of the pupils. After the rule is thus made, it should be used by the pupils in recitations, in stating what they do, until it is fixed in memory. The terms to be embodied in a definition or in a rule, will be determined in part by the terms previously used by the pupils in their elementary course.

Westfield Normal School, Mass.

THE BEST EDUCATION.

[A chapter from a French work, by Caroline de Banan. Translated for the NATIONAL TEACHER, by Miss Sue A. Longwell, Westboro, Mass.]

What is the best education, or how shall we instruct our children? Such is the question that each generation considers; such is the question it wishes to solve in order to apply its solution to the generation destined to replace it. It is not only the ambition

to lead our children to our level, which impels us to the examination of this problem, it is above all the ardent desire to prepare in them, to realize in them, the ideal of which we have had glimpses and which we have not been able to attain. We wish to transmit to them our aspirations, so that they may pursue them; we wish to show them the end which seems to flee before us, so that they may attain it; in short, we wish that they surpass us; and it is with this hope that each generation renews, for that which follows it, the eternal problem of the best education.

What is to day the ideal that the best education proposes? It is the preparation of the citizen for future society, by the development of the child in such conditions that all his being may be harmonious,—that nothing in him may offend our conception of the beautiful,—that no over-excitation or repression of a faculty may be revealed in him.

Education is physical, moral, and intellectual, and, in order to realize our ideal, it is necessary to give to each of these departments all it can possibly receive; we wish that the child, becoming man or woman, may attain the plenitude of its faculties in such conditions, that the activity of the body, the sensitiveness of the conscience, the intellectual power acquired may give to this being of our preference, the surest and most energetic powers of laboring, of doing good, of perfecting himself by aiding in the perfecting of others, that consequently he may obtain the greatest possible amount of happiness.

To make our children wiser, better, nobler, worthier, and happier than we have been, is, indeed, the sum of our wishes. And what are surest means of realizing them? It is sometimes replied: "The best education is that which succeeds best." This reply hides under an appearance of pure simplicity a profound truth. There are no absolute systems; each subject demands a peculiar culture. The best system is that which rears the best child. If this system be moral, if it realizes our harmonious ideal, that is, if it gives to each individual all the development of which he is capable, it is good. Are there, then, no principles in education upon which one can or ought to be founded? We believe the study of human nature unfolds general principles which are of great value in education, but it is also important that the system to which these principles serve as a base, be large enough and in a measure elastic enough to adapt and diversify itself according to each individuality. The rule is good if its application has made of each the utmost. But in what measure does education aid in the

formation of the moral, intellectual, and physical being? May we not err in attributing to an imperfect education faults which belong to the individual? This merits attention, so much the more as in an opposite sense it encounters opinions equally absolute. Some wish education to form all the moral and intellectual being, and, as it were, the physical; others wish nature to do all and education nothing, or almost nothing. These two views seem to us half true, half false. Physically, the human being, as every animal, is capable of more or less energy, of more or less activity, according as it is cared for with more or less discernment,—cared for, not enervated, for excess of management is clearly prejudicial to health and vigor of temperament. Intellectually, the human being is born with faculties, tastes, and aptitudes, which are indeed increased and extended by culture. Morally, the human being is born with affinities, inclinations, antipathies, which are developed according as they are cultivated or repressed, according to circumstances, examples, and opportunities. If we admit that the intelligent culture of the physical, moral, and intellectual being brings these results, we will not be able to deny that education, without creating in any degree the faculties of the human being, stimulates in him aptitudes, animates in him sentiments, communicates to him a physical force, an intellectual power, and a moral strength, of which he would be almost deprived without it, or which would always have remained in a latent state. No one, we suppose, denies farther the influence of education upon the mind. It acquires all except the faculty of acquiring; that is, the ability to know and to remember; it acquires because it is almost infinitely rich and sensitive. Education creates not the mind; it improves it; it teaches how to use it. The moral sense is developed by knowledge, by intelligence, by comparison; yet exercise gives neither prompt memory nor faculty to him who has not received them from nature. Warnings and counsels do not always inspire abnegation or devotion in the egotist; gymnastics do not give the muscles of an athlete to the being who has received only a weakly constitution; but intellectual gymnastics will increase and will strengthen the memory; they will make manifest the intellectual elements which would have remained hidden without them. Experience will correct the egotist and wrest him from himself; physical gymnastics will strengthen the muscles and make pliant the limbs of the feeble child. Without these necessary exercises, without this culture, without this effort which ought to cause his

good qualities to rise and oppose themselves to his ignorance, to his errors, to his faults even, man would remain a savage, ruled not by his reason but by his inclinations.

Finally, why separate the intellectual from the moral faculties? Both are distinct faculties, but all are faculties of the same intelligence. The human being is a unit, and his intelligence is a unit; it is his intelligence which is endowed with moral susceptibility; it discerns good and evil, right and wrong, as well as the beautiful and ugly. Man judges each with his mind; what we call reason and conscience are faculties of the mind, as well as memory, judgment, and imagination. These faculties are diverse, that is all; if some can be enlarged, others can also.

Let us observe, however, that human intelligence, always similar, that is, always provided with certain faculties of the same nature, is not equal in all; each one possesses rudiments of the faculties which in others become genius. We see resemblances and even differences in the faculties and physical proportions of each individual. Faculties similar in aim vary in different individuals, with the infinite variety of constitution and health, as well as of form and feature. Is it not the difference in the proportion of the intellectual faculties, which constitutes in minds and characters this diversity, as infinite as that which impresses us in the leaves of the same tree? Do we not see in this resemblance of the fundamental constitution of men and in the infinite diversity of proportion among their faculties, the necessity of using fundamental principles, similar for all, with an infinite variety of application?

These conditions given, we recognize that education does not create, it develops and stimulates, it moderates and strengthens, it balances and perfects. Its mission is to teach us our power, our value, our duty. Let us not demand more; this is much, very much.

But in admitting all that it can do well, let us admit also that by the application of an irrational method, it can mislead and warp, pervert, even destroy the elasticity of the mind upon which its action is exercised. False education may weaken the most robust body, mislead the most just mind, pervert the purest reason, destroy the clearest conscience. Then it not only misses its end in not elevating the being whom it influences, but it corrupts; it destroys in him what was naturally good.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

[The following is an abstract of a discussion at the meeting of the National Teachers' Association, held at Cleveland, August, 1870. We have prepared it from the stenographer's report, giving the more important views of the several speakers, and generally in their own words.]

Mr. J. L. Pickard, of Illinois, opened the discussion on this topic as follows: I remember that when a child, I was accosted by another boy, who told me, if I would stop, he would give me an apple. I was in a hurry and could not stop. He called out that he would give me two. "No," said I, "I must go on." "Hold on," said he, "I want to tell you something." I stopped as quickly as if I had been shot. That expression, I believe, stops more children than any other. Why is it? There is a desire in the mind of the child to know, to learn something he has not known before. This curiosity in the child should be encouraged—not as is often done in these days by not telling them what they desire to know, but by giving the child something new, something that he may remember, something that will strengthen him. There is another expression that I have known children to use sometimes. I can recall the use of it myself. Many times children may be heard to say, "Come and see how nicely I can do this." Now what does this represent? It represents in the mind of the child the conscious ability to do something new. This interest in the child is owing to the discovery of some new power within himself, and he is anxious that every one should know what it is. Here we have two points that enter more largely into the child's first experience than any thing else: first, a desire to learn something new; and, secondly, the pleasure of the conscious ability to do something new. It seems to me that in our instruction we should aim to gratify this curiosity, and show the child what he can do, enabling him to go forward and do all he can with the consciousness of doing more and improving his strength. The child, it seems to me, is a bundle of curiosity. At first, there must be but little else in the mind of the child. Let us go as far back in our own experience as we can, and see what were our own desires and our own thoughts in connection with the school. How much have we to learn as children when we go to work in the school-room? How much is there that we know nothing about? I believe that there is more learned in the first ten years of the child's life than in twenty

years afterwards. He has to learn everything. He must make each thing to him a subject of individual study in that one direction.

Now, with regard to the means to be used by teachers in developing the minds of children, I shall only aim to throw out a few hints. The means used are often such as crush out curiosity and check the desire to do things. The teacher disapproves of what the child does when legitimately exercising his powers. The child, for instance, is seen striving to see how straightly he can draw lines upon his slate. The teacher asks what he is doing, and scolds, and perhaps punishes him. If, instead of this, he should notice the work carefully, and say: "Very well; part of them are very straight; the next time you can do better," the child would be encouraged to strive to gain a better and higher ability, and would be rewarded with the greater consciousness of doing better afterward. So with whatever the child does. To discourage the child in the proper development of its nature, has a tendency to crush out the life of the child rather than to cultivate that life into better methods of thought and action.

But there is another very important means in the education of children—that is, their attention should never be confined too long on one point. I find teachers are very much to blame sometimes in this matter. A child does something wrong, and the teacher can not forget it. Every moment the child is reminded of it, for hours, perhaps, afterward. Now, it seems to me, there is a better way than this. Inasmuch as the mind of the child can not hold two things at once, throw out the bad thing and put in something good and better, when the other will be forgotten, and the evil disposition that it might have put in the child, is gone. I have noticed this in one matter particularly. If a child, in running, falls and hurts itself, instead of picking it up and saying, "Oh, you did hurt yourself so badly; you must take care and not run too fast," you put it to doing something else to interest it, the child will in a moment have entirely forgotten its fall. So when a child is crossed in any way, instead of constantly insisting upon it that it is wrong for its wishes to be gratified, say, "Come here, and do something for me," and the child's attention is turned to the new thing, and it gets so absorbed that it forgets what it wanted before, and the tendency to wrong-doing is crushed just as readily as if whipped out—and better, I think. Then to give something new and better is, to my mind, the surest method to correct wickedness in children. (Applause.)

Mr. Johonnet, of New York: I would like to ask the gentlemen whether by the plan he suggests, he would succeed in breaking the will of the child, or whether it is necessary to do so in the good old orthodox way?

Mr. Pickard: I answer, it is not. The will of the child should never be broken. (Applause.) The will of the child is his mainspring in life; he needs it as long as he lives. The idea of crushing the will of the child is barbarous. Let it be cultivated and directed into proper channels, rather than allow it to run into improper ones.

Miss Schofield, of Pennsylvania: Should we not consider teaching a holy and sacred work—to be done as a work God has given us to do? If we do this we will observe closely the methods that should guide us in instructing the children committed to our care. We must develop their moral, intellectual, and spiritual being. We must open their minds and hearts not only to science and education, but to the beauty of loving and glorifying God. We must bring His nature and spirit into our daily lives and examples. We must bring our work down to their little hearts, and raise them up that they may be God's children. To do this we must not crush the will that God has given them for a noble purpose. We must train and direct it properly.

E. E. White, of Ohio, being called upon by the President, said: In determining what motives should be used in governing children, I have sometimes thought we get better views by considering motives in classes. For this purpose, as it seems to me, motives and incentives may be classified as those which are *natural*, and those which are *artificial*. The natural motives are those springing out of the very nature of the child, which need to be strengthened by the teacher, and these natural motives are those which should lead the child to duty. But we have in our schools a system of incentives used, which, when the child has passed out of school into life, never meet him. They are artificial; they are a kind of machinery thrown around the child in his school life, and ending with it.

I hold that, in the government of children, it is always unwise to resort to any mechanism, any artificial means, to get a child to perform any duty, which it may be made to do by natural means. Too many teachers, I think, are tied up, as it were, by these artifical systems, when, if they knew it, they could lead a child better by natural means. I ask the question pointedly whether, in the graded schools of our cities, teachers do not

make a mistake in this way? Could they not accomplish equally valuable results without resorting so much to artificial means? It may not be possible always to accomplish the desired results by the sole use of natural incentives, but a resort to artificial incentives is always an injury to the child, if the use of natural ones will accomplish the same result. It may be necessary sometimes to use what may be called artificial motives, but the fault lies in not leaving them when there is no more need of them. In training a class of savages we may do well to resort to toys, beads, and play things as artificial rewards to stimulate the savage nature; but to keep it up when there is no longer any necessity for such an incentive to action, is a mistake.

I am not certain that the proposition is fully right that the will of the child is never to be curbed or checked, I will not say broken. In the moral training of the child, the first act, sometimes, is to let him know that there is a will to which his will must bend. (Applause.) I have known cases where there was no means of reaching the heart of the child, bolted by the will, until this obstacle was removed. As soon as that point was carried, you came into the citadel of the child's soul. It seems to me that, in all these matters, there is danger of going to an extreme. This is true in the matter of corporal punishment as a means of controlling children. I think it true, that the teacher who tries to govern his school by relying upon the rod or physical power, is making a great mistake. In training children that means needs to be used very seldom. But I am far from saying that the teacher does wrong who at times falls back upon the rod to enforce his authority. I believe there are periods in the training of children when the best thing and the only thing that can be done to enforce authority, is by this very means. The truth is, that before the heart-power of the teacher can enter into the heart of the child, there must be a subjection of the child unto the authority of the teacher. When that is done, this heart work becomes natural and easy. We are in danger of fixing on a single principle or position, forgetful that we are standing on a narrow platform. In school discipline and instruction I plead for a broad platform; not for the development of one faculty or power, but for such a system as shall sweep through the whole range of the soul's powers, developing them all systematically. When our practice corresponds to this, then, in my judgment, we have touched the great problem of education and discipline.

Mr. Weston, of Illinois: I think, perhaps, there was a misun-

understanding on the part of the last speaker as to an expression used by Mr. Pickard. I believe the difference which arises sometimes, is merely in the definition of terms. I have often heard it said that the will of children must not be broken, but that expression with reference to breaking the will, and which has come down to us from a very early age, I believe contains a truth. There is a certain obstinacy which must be broken up, as the last speaker said, before we can do much in instructing the child. I remember conversing twenty-five years ago with a gentleman, whose four sons were in my school, about the management of his children. He said that he always had one conflict with his children, and never but one. The severest one was with the youngest of these boys (one of the most amiable children in the school). He had refused to obey, and the contest between the child and father was a great one. The child was not whipped, but he put him in a private room and gave him that wholesome diet, bread and water, until he should think it wise to come to terms. He did not accomplish it in one day and tried it the second; he did not accomplish it in two days and tried it the third; and it was the fifth day before he would obey. "But never from that day to this," said the father, "has he disobeyed me." I hope I shall betray no trust when I say that boy was Mr. Pickard's brother (Sensation and applause.) Mr. President, what Mr. Pickard is to this country, what he has done in the cause of education, I ascribe to the fact that his father brought his will into subjection to his own. (Applause.)

Mr. Hoose, of New York: Mr. Chairman, this is a matter upon which I have thought a good deal. One of the greatest problems educators have to decide, is school discipline. What is ordinarily called a good school, is not necessarily a good place for good discipline. Aristotle somewhere defines civil society as being a place where people can live, and live well. I think there is the germ of a good definition of a school. A school should be a place where pupils can live, and live well, cheerfully, happily, profitably; and until we make our schools such, we are not in the highest sense educators.

It is necessary in the school that the teacher be obeyed. If we do not hold the pupils, they will hold us. It seems to me, the reason of any difficulty in this matter is because we are working on the narrower base. We want, as Mr. White has said, to have a broader platform upon which to work, in our system of school discipline. This, it seems to me, is the key to the whole thing.

You ask if I would not have regulations? I say yes. But I can not see why schools may not be considered as a small society, and governed upon the principles which obtain in society. Some of the rigid laws of teachers partake of the nature of tyranny, and are wrong. But here is a regulation; if a pupil breaks it, shall we allow the regulation to remain broken and that pupil unpunished? "If so, the pupil will get the better of me," you say, "and I may have to go out of the door, or somewhere else." How is it in civil law? A man may be punished for slandering his neighbor; but we don't send a constable after a man every time he says something untrue about his neighbors. Many of our civil laws are in some sense violated, and are not framed with such wisdom as to suit all cases. So the laws made by the teacher are not above criticism. [The speaker then cited several Scripture examples, showing that God does not punish every infraction of His law, and added:] If there are cases when God has dealt thus, yielding from what he had said—if the great Jehovah can do that, it seems to me that I, created dust of the earth, should be very charitable to those over whom I am placed. (Applause). There is a principle, I think, in this, that we must work out. I believe that as educators, we must work at it, and, as we do so, we will expand and enlarge in the cause of education, and we will not then hear the remark that he or she is old and dried up as a teacher. We never can get old fogyish with such principles.

President E. T. Tappan, of Kenyon College, being called out by Mr. White, spoke as follows: I have been very much interested in what has been said here. This is the most important question which has been brought before this association; for according as we educate the motives of children, so do we make them men or women—such men and women as we ought to have coming from our schools. I fear, however, that there is more than a definition in this question which was spoken of about breaking the will. There is a real difference of action among parents and teachers. While in the example which was cited, the father may have made one saint, I very much fear that those who pursue that course will make for every saint, at least seven devils. (Laughter.) This contest between the parent or the teacher and the child, as to which one shall give up, is frequently a mere contest of pride on the part of both, and the parent's pride and the teacher's pride is that which impels them on, and is a trait characteristic of devils, and makes devils. Excuse me

if I have seemed to speak harshly on this point, but I have seen it done. I will not say no such course must ever be used, nor do I say that we must tie ourselves down to any particular method. How many of you remember, within two or three years past, the whole nation was horrified by the report of that father who beat his child to death in his resolution to conquer its will? And how many of you, if your experience has been such as mine, have seen parents break the wills of their children and make them utterly useless for all good work in this world? And yet, as I have said, these are things which must be determined, each one according to the case in hand. There is nothing truer than this, that there is no absolutely certain or general rule in the government of children. But, Mr. President, there are great principles that do not change, and it is important that we understand motives, and that we study them.

I would not make exactly the same classification that Mr. White did, but we should know what are the lower and what the higher motives. Every parent and teacher should be familiar with them. There may be motives which are good, yet lower than others which are better; and let us here remember that selfish motives are not so high and pure as motives which are unselfish, and when we wish to cultivate that which is high and noble in the human beings entrusted to our care, let us cultivate selfishness in them as little as possible, and the unselfishness of the life that is within them as much as possible. Fear may be appealed to, but, as has been said, this is the lowest motive. The hope of reward may be appealed to, and I think it is a good motive if used properly. In using rewards, avoid that which is sometimes cultivated at the same time—a desire to injure another. But a higher and a better than either of these, is the love which the child has for its parent or teacher. Cultivate this feeling faithfully. Appeal to it both by action and precept, and try to bring it out. The love of country is a higher motive than love of parents or teacher. How much we have seen of the need of it in this country, where so many have been taught from their very cradles to love the part rather than the whole. But there is another motive higher and better than any of these—the love for that Being that is higher and purer and nobler than all mankind. A year ago, in this very room, the Ohio Teachers' Association resolved unanimously, that the teachings of Jesus Christ should permeate all grades of instruction. And we may take it as a law to us, that His example should be before us in every

attempt we make to educate the children—an example of unselfishness, of devotion, and of love to the whole race, such as is nowhere else found—an example which is the highest and purest and noblest in character that ever has been upon the face of the earth. Shall we not use it for this purpose? Is it not given to us for an example? And can we do our duty entirely if we neglect it? I do not wish to preach a sermon. I am not a preacher, but what I have said belongs to the subject we are discussing. How can we use the motives involved in the education of children, unless we go to the highest motive ever given to man—the love of God? (Applause.)

President Fairchild, of Oberlin College, being called upon by Mr. Williams, said: Mr. President, I have been intensely interested in all that has been said, and only wish that I had some as good things to say as those that have already been presented to us. I was greatly instructed and interested in the classification which Mr. White presented to us, of natural and artificial motives. That may not, perhaps, be the only classification which is important in the matter, yet it is one that is very suggestive, and one that has attracted my own attention as a teacher. These natural motives are the motives which the man or woman must live by eventually. They are the ones that will be found in society everywhere, the motives under which we live and act as members of society, and it is important that the children in the lower and higher schools come to realize, as soon as possible, these higher motives which belong to society at large, and which will operate upon man and woman whenever they come to act their part in society. I have thought that the motives we sometimes bring to bear upon our children in the schools, are such as will fail when the scholar comes to leave the school-room and take his place in society. We surround the child in the schools with artificial reasons for his actions more or less; such as can not be furnished in society generally, and when he steps out of school into society we find the motives are gone, and there is a collapse in all his powers. I think it has been found that those who have come out of the competitive struggles in our colleges with the highest honors, when once they have graduated and have gone out into society, lose the stimulus under which they have acted for from four to six years, and hence find themselves almost unsustained in their endeavors. It has been said, and I think with some degree of truth, that those who have gained the highest places in these classes where the competition is stimula-

ted by artificial forces, are frequently not heard from again, and many of those who stood far below them under this pressure of artificial motives, when the natural forces came to operate upon them, took their places above them, as forces and powers in society, and accomplished a work which those persons who worked under the excitement of artificial stimulus, were not able to accomplish. I have been constrained to think there was some truth in this statement, and that experience, if gathered in statistics, would sustain the idea. The thing we want then, is to furnish to the pupils those motives and reasons for their action, which will operate on them when they come to stand in their places and do their work in life.

In reference to this matter of school discipline, I have comparatively little experience, such as would be of benefit to most of those who are gathered here, but I have sometimes thought that teachers often make a mistake in provoking or admitting an encounter or crisis between themselves and their pupils. They allow a case to come up. which at once leads to a conflict, instead of foreseeing the evil and avoiding it. It seems to be a matter of pride—perhaps with some teachers and parents it may be a habit—to watch almost for opportunities to bring their own authority in collision with the will or feelings of their pupils or children, for the very purpose of showing that they are in authority, and that they are able to maintain their places. In the experience I have had as a teacher, it has seemed to me that this course is always a mistake, and that the better way is to avoid every such collision, every such conflict, as far as possible. Let the teacher throw himself upon the magnanimity and generosity of the pupil, expecting there will be a response to such an appeal. I think the teacher who cherishes magnanimous and generous feelings toword his pupils in his own heart, will seldom appeal to them in vain. He will find them ready generally to meet him more than half way. This has been my experience and accords with my feelings. Where the mistake is generally made in this matter, is in not foreseeing where conflict is likely to occur, and providing against it. (Applause.)

Mr. Johonnet, of New York: I do n't wish to add a word to this discussion, except simply to give the result of experience in this matter of school discipline. Something like two years ago, the board of education, in the city of Syracuse, abolished corporal punishment in the schools of the city. In our State Association, which held its convention at Syracuse two weeks ago, the

chairman of the board of education gave the results of this experiment there, and the points he made were these: The year before this regulation was passed, a record was kept of the number of cases of corporal punishment in the schools of the city. In that year they numbered upwards of five thousand. It was abolished. The results were looked upon, of course, with a great deal of care and solicitation on the part of those who favored its abolishment. The result of the first year was, first, that five thousand cases of corporal punishment were abolished; secondly, that the discipline of the school on an average had increased twenty-five per cent.; thirdly, the number of persons that had been expelled from school was twenty-five per cent. less than the year before.

Mr. White, of Ohio: Mr. President, as you had the unkindness to call me out, I will call myself out for a word. I was very glad to hear President Fairchild's closing remarks. They are not only in keeping with the spirit of the remarks of my friend from Chicago, but they present the true policy in the management of children. *Always avoid this collision if you can;* and generally even the lightning of the pupil's resistance may be silently drawn by the point of the teacher's skill. I think that more than nine-tenths of all those cases of conflict in our schools, which bring reproach upon the profession, and cause this tumult against punishment, arise from the unnecessary pushing of children to the wall—the unnecessary bringing of the teacher's will into conflict with the will of the child.

But suppose you have exhausted your skill and resources in avoidance, and yet it confronts you? The point is, whether you are justified in then taking more serious measures—I will not say whipping, because that scarcely ever comes to my mind when talking of governing forces. In my judgment, the child should be subjected to the authority of the teacher. I speak of the subjection of the child, not necessarily by breaking his head or neck, but by that superior power which the teacher possesses.

The President, Mr. D. B. Hagar, of Massachusetts: If the association like, I will tell an incident that came under my notice many years ago. I had under my charge, when I was a very young teacher, twenty-seven years ago, a little boy about eight years of age, the son of a college professor. The little boy was exceedingly bright, exceedingly happy, and exceedingly mischievous. (Laughter.) He was very disorderly one day; that is, full of pranks and tricks. Said I to him, "Master Austin, you

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have been a very naughty boy to-day." "Yes, sir," said he. After a moment I said, "You must stay after school." "Very well, sir," he replied. He was exceedingly polite. After school closed and the boys had gone, I called him up to me. He came forward, looking me very pleasantly in the face, as much as to say, "What do you want, sir?" I said to him, "Austin, you have been a very mischievous boy to-day." "Yes, sir," he said, "I have been." "Now," said I, "what shall I do about it?" "Anything you please, sir." (Laughter.) "Well," said I, "I think I will have to keep you here to-night. What would you say if I would keep you here till dark?" "Oh!" remarked he, "I would have a good appetite for supper when I got home."

"But what if I would keep you until nine o'clock?" "Well, I would have a most excellent appetite then." "Well, if you don't care about that, I will have to whip you; what would you think of that?" "Oh! that won't last long," said he; and all this was said without the least disrespect, as to manner. When I was thinking what I should say further, he concluded, as if he had just summed up the case, "You can keep me here until to-morrow morning, if you want to, but I will have a glorious appetite for breakfast; you can whip me, but that won't last long;" and then, doubling up his little fist, he said, with a smile as he looked me in the face, "but you darsen't kill me." (Loud laughter.) After thinking over the matter, I said to him, "You may go now, and I will consider your case, and decide what shall be done." I have not decided that case yet. (Great laughter.) If any of the ladies or gentlemen present can tell me, dogmatically, what should be done in the case, I shall be greatly obliged to them.

Question by a Member: I would like to know what the deportment of that boy was afterward?

Mr. Hagar: It was excellent—that was the trouble. The boy grew up to be an excellent man.

God has given to the parent the right to the obedience of his children, and the power to enforce it; and that parent has failed in his duty, who has not trained his child, not only to love him, but to obey him, in the strict sense of the word.—Hart.

Editorial Department.

—We call special attention to the contributed articles in this number. Mr. Thompson's suggestive paper on the teaching of writing in ungraded schools, was written at our request. The idea of classifying pupils for writing is excellent and practicable. We query whether a third class might not be formed—to be composed of the youngest pupils, and to be instructed in writing on slates. The article, entitled "The Best Education", shows the drift of French thought on education, and, for this reason, it has a special interest and value. Prof. Phelps's excellent series of papers on primary instruction is to be followed by a series adapted to the intermediate classes in country schools. We are happy to announce that we have already received several valuable contributions for our next number, including Prof. Mason's first paper on the teaching of vocal music to children, and an excellent letter from Prof. S. A. Norton, who is now at the University in Leipsic, on the German Uuiversities. He promises another letter on the Kindergarten and Burger schools.

—We referred briefly last month to the place and work of academies in an educational system, and we are glad to publish Prof. Parker's more exhaustive treatment of the same subject. While he does not over-state the importance of academies, we think he fails to give the public high schools in cities and towns due credit as intermediate schools. The better class of high schools completely fill the gap between the lower common schools and the colleges, and the true policy is to establish such high schools wherever there is sufficient population to supply pupils. The public school system should meet the school wants of every community as completely as possible. But, as we said last month, the great majority of school districts can not sustain adequate high schools, and the youth therein, who wish a higher education, must go from home to secure it. It is true they can attend the high schools in cities and towns—and some do this,—but the expense of board and tuition and the necessary strict classification of these schools put them beyond the reach of most country youth. This fact creates a demand for a system of well-endowed academies. We fully indorse what Prof. Parker says respecting the preparatory departments of colleges. We have urged for years that the great need of Ohio colleges is four or five thorough, well-endowed, *free* academies. Their endowment should be sufficient to pay an experienced and competent corps of teachers, and the expense incurred in attending should be low enough to put them within reach of youth who are now obliged "to pick up" a poor preparation or abandon the idea of going to college. The preparatory schools of the West are, with few exceptions, lamentably defective. Can not the partial endowments of a few of our would-be colleges be used as foundations for free academies of a high grade?

—— We are sure that our readers will not think that too much space is devoted to the discussion in the National Association on school incentives, though the space might have been reduced by the use of smaller type. The subject is too little discussed by teachers and is less understood. We fear that it is a common mistake to consider school instruction and discipline chiefly in their relation to the school life of pupils, and hence measures are adopted and motives used, which fail to nourish sterling character in the young and prepare them for self-government in life. Artificial incentives are often so zealously used to secure good recitations and creditable examinations, that pupils come to regard the reaching of the prescribed "per cents" as the *end* of school study. So in government. Holidays are offered as a reward for punctuality; exemption from certain duties as a recompense for good conduct, etc.; and these artificial incentives are often made so prominent that they become the main-spring of the pupil's efforts. What is needed to correct such errors in school administration is a careful consideration of their effect on the character and subsequent life of pupils. To prepare his pupils for true and successful living, is the grand mission of the teacher.

—— There is reason to fear that the reaction against the old despotic system of child government is carrying many parents and teachers to an opposite extreme, and is resulting in the breaking down of wholesome and necessary control. The idea that a child is never to be forced to do or to abstain from doing anything, is ruining thousands of children. They do not wish to go to school, and so are permitted to stay away; they do not like to study, and so are permitted to play; they are unwilling to stay at home at night, and so are suffered to run the streets. A circus or a monkey-show empties the schools. All this is worse than folly. The most sacred right of childhood is the right to be controlled—to be protected from its ignorance, its caprices, and its improper desires—and the duty of exercising this needed control rests imperatively on parents and teachers. Among the most fruitful experiences of our childhood were certain imposed denials, which, at the time, cost some tears, and the performance of duties for which we had little natural inclination. We are aware that the anti-force theory urges that it is the duty of parents and teachers so to instruct and influence children that they will wish to go to school, to study, to be obedient, to deny themselves, etc.—all of which is very true and very beautiful. But the practical difficulty is, that so long as parents and teachers are as weak and imperfect as the majority now are, the theory can not be fully carried out. Authority is still needed to supplement instruction and influence, and even the best of parents and teachers find it necessary sometimes "to put the foot down." Indeed, so long as civil government is necessary, obedience to rightful authority will be one of the most important lessons of childhood. The two extreme theories of force and influence need to be conjoined by subordinating the former to the latter.

—— The *Atlantic Monthly* for January, contains an able and elaborate paper by Senator Wilson, of Massachusetts, in which the proper education of

the people is urged as "the great American question of the hour." No thoughtful American, facing the fact that the ballot is now in the hands of over half a million of voters who can neither read nor write, will deny the imperative necessity of the thorough and universal education of the people. This is truly one of the living issues of the hour, and it should receive immediate and earnest consideration. But how shall this necessity of the country be met? Mr. Wilson answers that it should be made a party issue; that it should be heartily indorsed by national and state conventions; that scholars and philanthropists, scientific and religious bodies, the pulpit and the press should all unite to arouse the country to a proper appreciation of the great question; that the wealthy men of the nation, imitating the noble example of Mr. Peabody, should proffer needed pecuniary assistance; and, lastly, that there should be "appropriate legislation." All this is well, and the policy may be safely commended to both political parties. But what would be appropriate legislation? Mr. Wilson specifies "Mr. Hoar's bill for the establishment of a national system of education, or something tantamount thereto." With all due respect for the distinguished Senator, we express our conviction that such legislation would not only be inappropriate, but unfortunate. We would rather suggest the policy of aiding and stimulating the States to establish and maintain efficient school systems. Instead of national taxation, compulsion, and direction, let five or six millions of our surplus revenue, now used in buying bonds, be *conditionally* appropriated to States needing such assistance. Let grants of land be made for the endowment of normal schools. In brief, let the nation try assistance, instead of compulsion. We have discussed this subject more fully in another place.

—— THERE was a lively time in the House of Representatives, Jan. 13th, over the proposition to increase the appropriation for the National Bureau of Education. The opposition to the bureau made a persistent fight not only to prevent any increase, but to strike out all appropriations for its support. Their motions were voted down by large majorities, and, on motion of Mr. Dawes, chairman of the Committee on Appropriations, amendments were adopted increasing the appropriation from $14,500 to $26,500—the increase being for the collection of statistics, the preparation of reports and circulars of information, the salary of a translator, and for stationery. The vote on the principal amendment was 73 to 45, which shows that the bureau is hopefully strong in Congress. It is noteworthy that the chief objection urged against the bureau was that its ulterior object is to inaugurate a national system of education—a system to be controlled by national authority. It is surprising that this charge, made by several speakers, was not met with a prompt and emphatic denial, though Mr. Dawes was careful to show that the appropriation was solely for the collection and distribution of information. This true function of the bureau is definitely stated in the memorial of the National Association, praying for its establishment, and in the original law, and the Commissioner is now zealously doing this important work. It is hoped that liberal appropriations will enable him to do it more efficiently. The educators of the country have twice expressed the

settled conviction that there should be no national control of the school systems in the several States, and it ought to be known that the friends of the bureau neither design nor desire to make it the head of a national school system.

—— A TEACHER wishes us to give "*the very best method* of teaching spelling from a speller in a country school, something to supersede the old 'head and foot' system and keep up a lively interest in the class." We are not sure that we know the "best" method, but we can give some of the features of a *good* method: 1. Every lesson is copied neatly on the slate, as a part of its preparation, and the younger pupils divide the words into syllables 2. Younger classes read the words from the slate before spelling, and the slates of all classes are properly examined. 3. The pupils spell by turn, *except* when the teacher throws the word somewhere else, and these exceptions are very numerous. Every pupil is kept on the lookout for stray words, which are likely to fall just where they may be missed. 4. The teacher does not pronounce the words in their order, but gives prominence to the more difficult words, some of which are pronounced several times. 5. The pupils are required to spell correctly *every* word pronounced to them, and *at the first trial.* All misspelled words are subsequently written from ten to twenty times by the pupils failing. 6. The teacher keeps a daily record of the number of words missed, and this record takes the place of the old "going up" system as an incentive. 7. Short lessons are assigned and preceding lessons are constantly reviewed. The mastery of each ten lessons is tested by a thorough examination. 8. Classes that can write with facility spell either advanced or review lessons by writing, the teacher pronouncing from twenty to forty words.—— These are the principal features; their combination is left for the teacher. Classes below the third reader should not use a spelling book—their reading lessons will afford the best possible lessons for spelling.

——THE more we see of teaching, the less is our confidence in prescribed methods. The mind is not touched by the revolving cogs of a dead mechanism. A method must pulsate with a soul breathed into it. There must be the contact of mind with mind and heart with heart. A method can never be more than a way, a channel; it must be filled by the teacher. Hence the barrenness of mere operative teaching — the turning of the crank of "approved methods." No true teacher can be an operative, a crank turner. He must be an *artist*, and a primary teacher should be the artist of artists. But teachers can only be liberated from the thralldom of mechanical methods by a comprehension of their principles—and here is the great work of normal and training schools. We do not need more imitators, more pedagogues with their hand-organ methods, but we do need more teachers with a clear insight into the principles of their high art, and with sufficient ability and skill to invent, modify and vitalize their methods.

THE CINCINNATI SCHOOLS.

In 1856 we spent several days in the public schools of Cincinnati, to learn what we could of school instruction and management. The work of reorganization, begun two years before, had made considerable progress, but the results of the old regime were still observable. The rote system was stubbornly resisting a change. In all grades, even in the lowest, there was still a slavish use of text-books, and the recitations were memoriter and mechanical. The new classification, and the system of written examinations for the promotion of pupils and the comparison of the different schools, were beginning to work out their legitimate results.

Six years later we again visited the schools, making a longer and more thorough examination. The new system was running like clock-work, and, owing to the perfection of its mechanism, there were little friction and waste. The work to be done in each grade was definitely mapped out, and the examinations measured the results as accurately and, we may add, about as mechanically as cloth or wood is measured. The examination tests were submitted to the principals of the several districts for approval, and, since the comparative standing of their schools depended upon the per cent. of correct answers given, all questions which did not clearly fall within the "conditions of transfer", as laid down in the course of study, were rigidly excluded, and we more than suspect that questions likely to be missed did not always receive a unanimous vote. The branches, covered by these tests, were arithmetic, writing, spelling, definitions, local geography, English grammar, and vocal music, and on these and on the topics prescribed the energies of teachers and pupils were concentrated. Arithmetic was the great hobby, and small children were drilled in the combinations of abstract numbers with surprising persistency. All this was the natural outcome of the system. The tabulated results of these examinations indicated to the school authorities and to others the comparative standing of the various schools and districts, and this necessarily created an intense competition. All instruction that did not tell in the per cent. table, was neglected, for no teacher could afford to give attention to subjects in which no credit was given, and especially when such a course would affect unfavorably the standing of his school as shown by the next examination.

We were gratified to find that the superintendent and the principals were conscious of the evil results and tendency of the system, and were earnestly discussing measures of correction and reform; and, we are happy to add, we here and there found a teacher with sufficient moral heroism to resist the pressure and break through the prescribed routine.

The results of our observations, making some twelve pages, were printed in the EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, and though we did not spare criticism, our articles were most heartily approved by the teachers of the city. Supt. Harding made an effort to break "the cast-iron system" by instituting oral examinations in reading and other neglected branches, and by encouraging the teachers to exercise greater freedom in their work. The transfer tests were also widened, with beneficial results. A similar policy has been pursued by Supt. Hancock, and

the pupil's standing is now based on *all* the branches of study pursued. Moreover, the course of study has been widened, and made more liberal and elastic. The teachers are freer; the instruction is less text-bookish and mechanical; and the tests demand more real thought and culture. The old system shows, however, a wonderful power of resistance. Its mechanism and high pressure grind almost irresistibly. It demands words, facts, and even object lessons are made a process of cramming.

Since 1862, drawing, language lessons, and object lessons have been introduced as regular exercises, and the method of teaching in all the lower grades has been made more objective and less abstract. It is a question whether oral instruction is not carried too far. We think it better for children to learn some things from books, than to receive all their instruction from the lips of the teacher,—and especially is this true in this country. In Germany even the elementary schools are taught by educated men, specially trained for the profession of teaching, and making it a *life* business. Our primary teachers are largely girls who remain in the profession less than four years, on an average, and who bring to their difficult work a limited education and little or no special preparation. Their instruction necessarily lacks accuracy, method, and thoroughness. They need the help of good text-books. Moreover, exclusive oral instruction in primary schools requires too constant use of the slate. We fear that the amount of slate work done by little children in our schools, is often excessive and injurious.

Another noticeable change in the instruction in the Cincinnati schools, is the increased attention given to German. The number of pupils studying German has increased in ten years from 4,788 to 10,440, or to nearly half the pupils in the schools. But there are no separate German schools. The German children attend the same schools as those of American parentage, are subjected to the same discipline, and pursue their English studies in the same classes. They spend a portion of each day in rooms in charge of German teachers where they receive German instruction in reading and writing. This plan gives German children an opportunity to acquire a knowledge of their native language, and, at the same time, they have the advantages of American instruction and influence. They are thus Americanized without the loss of German speech and literature. We learn from the annual report that it was admitted at a recent convention of the German teachers of the United States, that Cincinnati is the only city in the country where it is impossible to establish a private German school to compete with the public schools.

The statistics of attendance show a gratifying increase, for five years past, in the number of pupils attending the higher grades. The number in the Intermediate Schools has increased from 899 to 1,565, and the number in the High Schools from 293 to 563. But the number now enjoying the advantages of a higher education, is much too small. The district schools cover a period of six years, the intermediate two years, and the high schools four years, and yet nearly *ninety* per cent. of all the pupils enrolled are in the district schools. The number of pupils eight years of age enrolled last year, was 3,728; twelve years of age, 2,432; sixteen years of age, 324. The annual report has a table showing the number of pupils in each of the three upper grades in the district

schools, and the two grades in the intermediate schools. It appears from this table that seventy-eight per cent. of the pupils in the C grade in the district schools are transferred to grade B; fifty-three per cent. to grade A; thirty per cent. to grade B in the intermediate schools; and only thirteen per cent. to grade A. About eighty-seven per cent. of the pupils who attend school at ten years of age and seventy-five per cent. of those who attend at twelve years of age, are withdrawn before they are fifteen. The report adds:

"It would seem that either there is but a limited demand for higher education, or that the schools are not adapting themselves to the wants of the community. It would be a great satisfaction to ascertain, beyond doubt, whether, as is generally supposed, material wants are pressing so strongly upon the parents of most of the pupils who are withdrawn, that they are compelled to put their children to work at an early age. The appointment of some committee, with ample authority to investigate the matter, and the employment of some suitable persons to call upon the parents of these children and inquire into the causes of the withdrawals, would settle this, and throw much light upon the working of the course of study, the subject of discipline, and other important matters connected with education."

As a remedy for this inadequate school attendance, Supt. Hancock advocates compulsory education, "in some form least objectionable to the spirit of our free institutions." "The highest good of the State demands that every one of its citizens should be trained to discharge aright the duties and responsibilities of his citizenship. To deny the right of the State to enforce this demand, is to deny its right to educate at all." The number of uncared-for youth in our cities and towns, who are growing up in ignorance and vice, is urged as an imperative reason for grappling with this question "at once and in a practical way."

The provisions of the amendatory school law of 1864, abolishing the system of unlimited certificates, which then existed in most of the cities and towns of the State, and making a knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching an essential qualification, are yielding important results. The board of examiners, consisting of seven members, has not only maintained a proper literary and scientific standard, but it has given due prominence to professional knowledge and skill. Actual success in the school-room is made a condition for the renewal of certificates, and this success is evidenced by the certificate of the principal and by the observations of a committee of the examiners, who visit and inspect the applicant's school. Supt. Hancock states that, in the course of the past year, these committees visited more than a hundred different schools, making their estimate of the capacity and success of as many teachers by an actual inspection of their work. There is also an examination in the theory and practice of teaching, and applicants are re-examined in those branches of study in which their previous mark was less than seven—ten being the maximum. The principals, whose certificates expired in June last, were required to teach classes and criticise each other's work in the presence of the examiners. It is scarcely necessary to add that this policy is contributing much to the scholastic and professional improvement of the teachers, and, as a consequence, to the progress of the schools.

The City Normal School, opened in 1868, is furnishing a few well-trained teachers, and is thus contributing much to the progress of the schools. It should be so enlarged and equipped as to make practicable the policy of em-

ploying only trained teachers. For several years past, a Normal Institute has been held the week previous to the opening of the schools in September. It has provided the teachers already employed in the schools with valuable and fruitful professional assistance.

We have not space to refer to other items of improvement manifest in the schools of the Queen City. Suffice it to say that they are making healthy and substantial progress in many particulars. Never since our acquaintance with them has their progress been as satisfactory as during the administration of the present superintendent.

MR. HOAR'S NATIONAL SCHOOL BILL.

Representative Hoar, of Massachusetts, has introduced into Congress a bill to establish school systems by national authority in all states and territories where such systems do not exist. It provides for the appointment of state superintendents with subordinate school officers, and apportions a tax among the several states according to population. The states which have school systems, meeting the prescribed standard, and those which may establish such systems within the time specified in the bill, are to be excused from the payment of the national tax, and their school systems are to be under their direction and control. Mr. Hoar supported his bill in a very able speech, chiefly devoted to the discussion of the constitutional questions involved.

It is not our present purpose to review this argument, since our chief objection to the bill lies outside of it. Moreover, we most heartily indorse all that is claimed respecting both the necessity and the beneficence of universal education. "The one imperative necessity of this nation is, that the public school be planted on every square mile of its peopled territory, and that the instruction imparted therein be carried to the highest point of efficiency." We wrote this in 1866*, and every year has deepened our conviction of its truth. We are also willing to concede that this necessity is so urgent that the establishment of public school systems by national authority, and even compulsory legislation, is demanded, if this result can not be otherwise attained. But is national compulsion necessary? Will it accomplish the end sought? Can systems of free schools be safely imposed upon the Southern States in the manner proposed?

Mr. Hoar admits, in the opening of his speech, that the education of the people can best be accomplished by local authority; that the administration of a school system by the state, town, and district, is essential to its highest success. This is true, and he might have gone one step further. A school system can not be built over the people. It must be planted in their confidence, esteem, and interest. It must grow out of the people, and its life and strength must come from them. In a monarchical government like Prussia, a school system may be made and administered for the people; in this country it must

*Report on a National Bureau of Education, 1866.

be made and administered by the people. When they withhold from it their confidence and support, when they refuse to administer it, it is sapless and fruitless.

This discloses the weak point in Mr. Hoar's argument. He ignores the fact that the compulsory establishment of school systems by the national government would *of itself* make such systems extremely odious to the people of the South. The free school idea is not popular now; national compulsion would make it still more obnoxious. It would *postpone* instead of hastening the voluntary organization and support of school systems by state and local authorities. It would take fifty years to overcome the hostility and prejudice thus engendered. Moreover, Mr. Hoar assumes that the states lately in rebellion will not establish school systems without compulsion. We do not know what may be the nature of the "voluminous evidence" to which he refers, but we have evidence that a majority of the reconstructed states have already established free school systems. It is true that these systems are not yet in very efficient operation, but, it must be remembered, that this requires both time and money. The districts must be organized; taxes must be assessed and collected; school houses must be built; and the people must become familiar with the new order of things. This is not the work of a day or a year. It will take ten years to build up efficient school systems in the South. The land is held in large estates; families live at great distances from each other; and a majority of the people are poor. It will require a large tax to yield a sufficient revenue to meet the current expenses of a school system.

This brings us to the true policy of the General Government. It should seek to stimulate, encourage, and aid the South in the work of establishing school systems. This has been the policy of the Freedmen's Bureau and the trustees of the Peabody Fund, and it has been largely successful. Hostility to popular education has thus been lessened; prejudice has been softened; and coöperation secured. Instead of levying a tax on these states to support a *national* system, let grants of land or appropriations of money be made to them on *condition* that they reach a prescribed standard in the maintenance of free schools. This will be more potent than compulsion. It will correct the judgment of those now indifferent to the advantages of free schools, and secure coöperation instead of hostility. Mental blindness has no better remedy than self-interest, and we have no fear that any state will reject the proffered bounties of the government. This is the policy of many of the states in distributing their school funds to districts, and it has been uniformly successful. Its adoption by Congress would soon secure a school system in every southern state, and it would greatly improve the schools where they are now indifferently sustained.

We do not object to the application of Mr. Hoar's bill to the territories, provided assistance, and not compulsion, be made its chief end. Thus applied it involves the exercise of no questionable constitutional power, and it would be welcomed by the great majority of settlers as a blessing. Besides, these incipient communities are peculiarly the legal wards of the nation, and as such are eminently entitled to its fostering care and protection. The national schools

would be *their* schools, and would have their confidence and coöperation. Let the march of our population into the wilderness be accompanied by an army of schoolmasters.—*Ohio Educational Monthly*, July, 1870.

CLASSIFICATION OF COUNTRY SCHOOLS.

We have received several letters from the teachers of ungraded schools, asking for information on the subject of classification. They state that their efforts are seriously crippled by multiplicity of classes, and they wish to know how the difficulty can be overcome. We would like to hear from our contributors on this subject, and we prepare the way by a few preliminary suggestions.

The difficulty alluded to may be lessened, but it can not be wholly or even largely overcome. An ungraded school of say forty pupils, representing all degrees of advancement, from the primer tyros to the more advanced pupils in English grammar, arithmetic, and geography, must necessarily contain a large number of classes. To attempt to classify the pupils in such a school so as to have from twenty to thirty minutes to each recitation, is to attempt what is impossible.

But it is very important that there be as few classes as practicable, and this result is certainly not attained in the great majority of country schools. Nor can it be attained without encountering difficulties. Indeed, the task consists largely in weighing and adjusting advantages and disadvantages. An ideal class consists of pupils of the same attainments, but pupils of unequal advancement may profitably recite together, provided the advantages resulting from a longer recitation outweigh the disadvantages arising from inequality of attainment—and of this the teacher, and not the pupil, must be the judge.

The loss to a pupil resulting from his reciting in one class with pupils of somewhat inferior attainments, may be made good by his reciting in another branch of study with pupils in advance of him. This is specially true in reading, spelling, and geography. The fact that pupils happen to be from ten to twenty pages apart at the close of a given term, is no reason that they should start thus the next term.

A great hindrance to the closer classification of many country schools is a want of uniformity in text-books. But this should not be permitted to destroy classification. If the teacher can not secure a uniformity of books, he should still put the pupils into the same class, and so conduct his recitations as to secure good results. It is easier and better to teach nine pupils together with three different text-books, than to instruct three classes.

What is needed in ungraded schools is a livelier appreciation of the importance of fewer classes as a necessary condition of thorough teaching. The whim or desire of the individual pupil must not be put above the need of the teacher and the good of the school as a whole. There must be a determined, persistent effort on the part of the teacher, *to bring as many pupils as possible into the same class.*

MISCELLANY.

—When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—We are greatly encouraged by the commendations of the National Teacher, coming to us from all parts of the country. They show an appreciation which insures for it a wide circulation as soon as its character becomes generally known.

—We send this number of the National Teacher to a few leading teachers and educators, who are not subscribers, and hope that its examination will not only induce them to subscribe for it, but also to commend it to others. We can still supply back numbers from October, the beginning of the volume; and all who subscribe before our edition of the first three numbers is exhausted, will receive *fifteen* numbers, making a volume of about *six hundred pages*—and all for $1.50.

—The first number of the revised *Connecticut School Journal* gives promise of great usefulness. It remains for the teachers of the State to give it such an earnest support that its suspension may never again be considered.—The *Pennsylvania School Journal* has been thoroughly reconstructed in the arrangement of its contents and greatly improved both in character and appearance. It is ably edited.—The *American Educational Monthly* has been enlarged, and its subscription price increased to $2 a year.

—Hon. Martin Welker, of Ohio, has introduced into Congress a bill for the incorporation and establishment of a free university in Washington City, with the name of the National University of Washington. The institution is to be under the control of a board of regents, five of whom are to be residents of the District of Columbia, and are to be appointed by the President. The donation of $10,000 to the university is to constitute any person a life regent. The bill proposes a grant of one million acres of land for the erection of buildings, the furnishing of apparatus, etc.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE WESTERN STATES.

Kansas.—No State in the Union is better provided with educational endowments, or blessed with a more admirable system of common schools, than this young State. Her educational corps is comprised largely of experienced educators from Illinois, Ohio, New York, and New England, who are familiar with the advantages and practical workings of the common school system, and who have contributed to the Kansas school fabric the best features of the matured systems of the several States from which they came, thus building of well-tested material a system of which the State may well be proud. The country is settling up so rapidly that it has not, as yet, the financial ability to fill promptly the measure of its educational needs, consequently in the more recently settled portions of the State the facilities are insufficient and the salaries inadequate; but the rapid increase of her school revenue guarantees full ability at an early day to meet this want. Leavenworth has made rapid progress in the school work in the last few years. There are few better schools any where than those of that place, and few cities can boast of an abler and more efficient corps of instructors. A State Normal School was established there last fall, which now has about fifty students, and is accomplishing excellent results. Lawrence, Topeka, Manhattan, Junction City, Emporia, Ottawa, Humboldt, Fort Scott, Paola, and Olathe are also alive and earnest in the school work. These cities are all provided with neat

and commodious school buildings. The schools of Emporia, superintended by Miss J. L. Patty, those of Humboldt, by Mr. J. H. Sampson, formerly of Ohio, and those of Fort Scott, by Mr. T. W. McKenney, were organized less than three years ago, and under the competent management of their respective superintendents, they have reached a degree of excellence and importance that would do honor to much older and more pretentious cities. Fort Scott and Emporia have just completed elegant school buildings which compare favorably with any in the State. The State Normal School at Emporia has, under the able superintendence of Mr. L. B. Kellogg, attained a high degree of popularity, and is accomplishing an estimable work for the State. This school was established in 1865, and step by step has kept pace with the advancement of the State. It has an endowment of 30,000 acres of valuable land, which insures it a liberal support. The State University at Lawrence and the State Agricultural College at Manhattan are also in a prosperous condition. They are largely endowed by the General Government, and are generously supported and sustained by the State. A new and magnificent university building, which is to cost about $80,000, is in process of erection, and will be completed by next June. Hon. P. McVicar has just retired from the office of State Superintendent, after a popular and successful administration. He is succeeded by Hon. H. D. McCarty, whose great popularity and known ability as an educator, insure the full confidence and co-operation of the people of the State, and bespeak for him a highly successful career in his enlarged field of labor. The State Teachers' Association, at its annual meeting in December, elected Messrs. J. A. Banfield, of Topeka, and R. B. Dilworth, of Emporia, editors of the *Kansas Educational Journal*, *vice* Mr. L. B. Kellogg, resigned. The choice is considered a fortunate one. Mr. Banfield, who will perform the greater part of the editorial labor, is a gentleman of educational prominence and marked ability, and will more than sustain the present good reputation of the journal. On the whole, the educational interests of the State are being generously provided for, and the indications give promise of continued and rapid progress in the school work.

O. G. W.

NEBRASKA.—The capital, talent, and best energies of Nebraska have, until recently, been so fully employed in developing the commercial and agricultural interests of the State as to leave the educational wants but poorly provided for; but her financial prosperity is fast raising her above the necessities that have hitherto retarded her educational progress, and earnest effort is being made to develop and vitalize her excellent school system, and secure the munificent results it promises. Omaha has several fine school buildings, and a high-school building, which is to be one of the finest structures of the kind west of the Mississippi river, is in process of erection. Nebraska City also has excellent school buildings, and her schools are very ably conducted by Supt. Charles Creegan, who is accomplishing a good work in the place. There are also several private educational institutions in the town that deserve mention. Among these are "Otoe Seminary", conducted by Prof. Zaner, and "Prairie Institute", conducted by Misses Kinnie and Allton. Both of these schools are ably managed, and supply a want which the public schools can not at present meet. The work is also going on well in Lincoln, Plattsmouth, Peru, and many of the other larger towns of the State. The State Normal School, located in Peru, has, under the able management of Mr. J. M. McKenzie, attained a high degree of excellence and popularity. It promises largely for the future. Mr. McKenzie, having been elected to the office of State Superintendent, resigns the principalship this month, and will be succeeded by Prof. Strait, whose reputation and ample ability insure his successful management of the school. The State University is not in operation at present, but will open again next spring with an efficient corps of instructors. On the whole, the educational status of the State is good, and the prospects for large success encouraging.

O. G. W

Iowa.—This State is unsurpassed in educational zeal and practical effort, and, considering the many disadvantages incident to so new a State, her progress is remarkable. The people seem fully alive to the advantages of the common school system, and they contribute to its support with a degree of good will and liberality seldom equaled. Fine school buildings are springing up all over the State, first-class teachers are being called to the field from other States, and able lecturers are employed, at public expense, to do institute work, and to enliven the school interest among the people generally by evening lectures. The indications everywhere give promise of continued progress and ultimate honor to the State. To obviate the necessity of sending abroad for the majority of her teachers, normal schools are very much needed; but this want can not long be felt, as such schools will soon be established. All the larger towns and even those of the most recently settled portions of the State, are supplied with elegant and commodious school buildings, and efficient teachers. Supts. J. K. Sweeney, of Cedar Falls, W. A. Work, of La Porte, J. Gilpatrick, of Fort Dodge, and A. A. Armstrong, of Council Bluffs, all formerly belonging to the Ohio educational corps, are earning enviable reputations in their new field of labor. State Supt. A. S. Kissell spends a large proportion of his time visiting schools, laboring in institutes, and lecturing to the people, and is everywhere infusing new life into the system and stimulating the people to more earnest effort. Iowa is destined soon to occupy a very high educational rank. O. G. W.

NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

Ohio—The House of Representatives voted January 11th on Mr. Ward's bill to exclude the Bible and all religious instruction from the common schools of the State. The bill was defeated by the decisive non-party vote of 75 nays to 14 yeas. Twenty-two members did not vote. The bill made the reading of the Bible in any common school in the State a misdemeanor—a view the good people of Ohio are not likely to take, at least not in the nineteenth century.——A bill to establish State Normal Schools has been introduced into the House by Mr. Cessna, of Hardin county. It is almost a literal copy of the normal school law of Pennsylvania. We greatly prefer a different system for Ohio.——The House has instructed the committee on public printing to inquire into the practicability of the State's issuing a series of standard text-books for use in the public schools.

Seneca Normal School.—The second term of this institution, located at Republic, O., opened Dec. 20th, with 72 students, most of whom are preparing for the work of teaching. The school is in charge of J. Fraize Richard, a graduate of the Lebanon Normal School. He tells the young in his circular, "You can not afford to spend from four to six years at college, shattering your health and sacrificing hundreds and thousands of money, when the same amount of work can be done in less than one-half the time, and in a more thorough and practical manner." We are sorry to see any institution, aspiring to the dignity of a normal school, bring upon itself the derision of educated people by uttering such twaddle as this, and assuming to give a general education superior to Yale or Harvard, and *in half the time!* We wish Mr. Richards success in his important undertaking, and, for this reason, we hope he may not make such pretensions. A hill does not make itself a mountain by trying to belittle the Alps.

Kentucky.—A common school system was established in Kentucky more than twenty years ago, but it had no adequate financial basis and little popular support. Its total annual revenue was less than $300,000, for the education of 350,000 children, and its highest success was the sustaining of 4,189 free schools for *three* months, with an attendance of 159,123 pupils. This was the sad condition of school affairs when the present State Superintendent, Hon. Z. F. Smith, came into office. He zealously

gave himself to the grand work of securing a more efficient school system. He placed the subject boldly and strongly before the people, and, in 1869, succeeded in inducing the Legislature to submit the question of increasing the school tax from five to twenty cents on the hundred dollars, to a vote of the people. After an exciting canvass, the increased tax was carried by a majority of 25,000. In case the tax should be voted, the law made it the Superintendent's duty to prepare a bill for the reorganization of the system. This was done, and an excellent bill, embodying, in a good degree, the school experience of the country, was laid before the General Assembly. Its passage would have soon placed Kentucky on an educational equality with her sister States, but the bill was rejected by the committee, and a new one, patching up the old law, was reported and passed. This was a great disappointment to the friends of education and progress, but their triumph is only postponed. The new system, if system it can be called, has a much better financial basis than the old, and its perfection is, as Mr. Smith predicts in closing his report, the work of no distant day. Kentucky can not afford to play the owl, and be blind to the light of educational experience in other States. Her future progress and development demand an efficient and thorough common school system.

WEST VIRGINIA.—State Superintendent Williams closed his six months' institute campaign the last of December, having greatly increased the popular interest in the school system and having otherwise accomplished incalculable good. He undertook the work without financial assistance from the State, and, with nothing but the small Peabody appropriation as a basis, carried it forward at his own risk. He met many obstacles and discouragements, but his ability, energy, and zeal were equal to the task. It will be the supremest folly if party spirit is suffered to deprive the State of the valuable services of so efficient an officer. He ought to be re-elected by acclamation.

WHEELING.—We recently spent a few hours in this city, and, though the schools were not in session, we had an opportunity to learn something of their condition and progress. There are 6,675 youth of school age (between 6 and 21) in the city, and of these an average of 2,275 were enrolled in the schools, with an average daily attendance of 2,030—an increase of 300 over the previous year. Eight male and forty-six female teachers are employed, at an average salary of $937.75 for the former, and $376.56 for the latter. The expenditures last year for the support of the schools amounted to $33,746, and for buildings $24,135. A comparison of these figures with those of previous years shows the increasing popularity of the system. The great educational need of the city is a good high school, and there is some prospect that one may soon be established. The trustees of the "Linsey Institute" have offered to lease their building (recently occepied as a State House) for five years for high school use, and it is hoped that the offer may yet be accepted. The demand for higher instruction is now partially met in the several ward schools, where classes pursue a limited high-school course. But this plan is expensive and otherwise unsatisfactory. A high school presents the advantages of a better classification, and besides, as all experience shows, the influence of such a school upon the system is worth more than it costs. The city is erecting a fine school building, the largest and best in the State. It contains twelve school-rooms, whose average size is 26 by 32 feet, a large hall, library and apparatus rooms, etc., and the basement (chiefly above ground) contains janitor, coal, and furnace rooms. The building has a French roof, and is to be supplied with water and gas, speaking tubes, and other modern conveniences. It is to be ready April 1st, and will cost about $40,000. We congratulate Superintendent F. A. Williams on the results of his five years' labor, and the city on its good fortune in having its school interests so wisely and faithfully administered. He is assisted by an efficient corps of principals and teachers.

BOOK NOTICES.

THE ECLECTIC SERIES OF GEOGRAPHIES. Complete in Three Books: I. Primary Geography. II. Intermediate Geography. III. School Geography. By A. VON STEINWEHR & D. G. BRINTON. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

The examination of these beautiful and tasteful books has been a rare pleasure. In typography, illustrations, and maps they are the best results of American art and talent, and in paper and binding they are, at least, unexcelled in the department of text-books. They are truly a delight to the eye. But we have not been content to look upon their appearance. We have felt a livelier interest in ascertaining their adaptation to school instruction—their general plan, arrangement, and details,—which we notice as follows:

1. The series is characterized by a uniformity of plan. There is the same arrangement of topics and materials in all the books, but in treatment each is specially adapted to the grade of pupils for whom it is designed. The Primary contains the simple elements of mathematical, physical, and political geography; the Intermediate contains additional topics and fuller details; and the School Geography is still more complete, including topics which only the more advanced pupils in common schools can profitably study.

2. In the second part of each book, the descriptive text is preceded by map questions, which necessitate an inspection and study of the map, and which are uniformly placed on the right page with the map on the left—a very convenient arrangement. The text is followed by questions. The order of study is (1) the study of the map under the guidance of the map questions; (2) the study of the text with reference to the map; and (3) the review by means of the text questions. The map questions and the text questions differ in form. The former are answered by giving the *names* of objects located or described; the latter require the *location* or *description* of objects named—a valuable feature.

3. The descriptive topics are presented in their natural order, that is, in the order of their interdependence. Hence physical geography is made the basis of political. The order of the sub-topics is (1) Position, (2) Surface, (3) Rivers and Lakes, (4) Climate and Vegetation, (5) Inhabitants, (6) Political Divisions and Cities. This is doubtless the true scientific order, but its educational value in the two lower books is easily over-stated. It is questionable whether small children see the interdependence of these facts from their order, as the "new system" claims.

4. The maps are both physical and political, and are very superior in accuracy and artistic execution. The surface features are very skillfully delineated. The low plains are represented by a delicate neutral tint; the plateaus are not colored; and the mountain chains are so shaded as to show the relative steepness of their slopes—a new feature in school maps. This method of projection strikes us as much better than the use of bright or strong colors to represent plains and highlands, since the great contrast in color gives a wrong impression of the difference in elevation.

5. The Intermediate book presents a method of map-drawing by squares, and the higher book by parallels and meridians. The method by squares is simple and easy, and it has the further advantage of preparing the pupil for the other method. The directions for map-drawing are clear and full.

But we have not space to refer to other important features of this excellent series, nor can we state in what respects it departs from our own ideal. Suffice it to say, that it presents the "NEW GEOGRAPHY" in a practical and teachable manner, and we heartily commend it to all who welcome improved methods of instruction. Neither pains nor expense has been spared to make the series worthy of a wide use in American schools.

THE TEACHER'S ASSISTANT; or, Hints and Methods in School Discipline and struction. By CHARLES NORTHEND, A.M., Author of the "Teacher and Par New York: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1870. Price $1.50.

This work was first published in 1859, and many teachers, both young and have found it a valuable assistant. It consists of a series of twenty-two fan letters, addressed to those who are entering upon the teacher's work, and embod the results of the author's long and successful experience. It is not a manu methods to be copied, but a series of practical hints and suggestions to guide, st late, and encourage the inexperienced. A characteristic and valuable feature i large number of practical examples and illustrations given. These are drawn la from actual school-room experience. The appendix contains a manual of schoo ties. The work belongs to A. S. Barnes & Co.'s "Teacher's Library", and is n published.

THE PARADISE OF CHILDHOOD: A Manual for Self-Instruction in Friedrich Froe Educational Principles, and a Practical Guide to Kinder-Gartners. By EDU WIRBE'. With Seventy-Four Plates of Illustrations. Springfield, Mass.: M Bradley & Co. Price $3.

We are safe in saying that there is no work in the English language equal to as a practical exposition and illustration of Froebel's system. The work consis four parts, which respectively represent the four steps of Kinder-Garten instruc and each contains plates of numerous cuts admirably illustrating the lessons. T plates are reprints of Goldammer's Kinder-Garten, and have been reproduced by publishers at great expense. They are invaluable as a means of acquiring a pr cal knowledge of the system. We commend this work to all parents and teac who wish to understand the principles and methods of the Kinder-Garten.

WONDERS OF ACOUSTICS. From the French of RODOLPHE RADAN. New Y Charles Scribner & Co.

This volume is a late addition to the series entitled the "Illustrated Libra Wonders", of which about thirty volumes are announced, and more than half number actually issued. These "wonder books" are translations from the Fre and, after having demonstrated their popularity by immense sales on the other of the Atlantic, they are becoming deservedly popular in this country. In t issue the publishers have done their share. They are profusely illustrated, and s of the volumes, including the one on Acoustics, are printed on handsome ti paper. Of the few which the writer has perused with care, the present volume is of the best, and it will be heartily welcomed and read with interest by all studen this most attractive branch of physics. Much of its value to the instructor, an interest to the general reader, will be found in its historical character. It doe make pretensions as a strictly scientific treatise, but the student will find in it v valuable information, contained in no other American publication. It begins wi couple of pleasant chapters on Sound in Nature and the effect of music on livin ings. The song of the hen is presented in quarter notes and half notes, and a faithful musical representation it is. The chapters on Echo and Resonance are ticularly complete and worthy of attention. The last part of the volume is especially scientific in its treatment of the subject; it includes chapters on Sou a Vibration and the "Physics of Harmony"—if I may be allowed to coin an pression. There are, in addition, interesting dissertations on the organs of Voice and the Ear. These, as well as some other parts of the book, will be with delight by the musician and the lover of music.

As might be expected, one or two faults are noticeable. From the general ma of treatment of the subject, I am inclined to charge the translator with several

curacies noticed; such as the assertion that the sound of the oboe and clarinet is caused by the trembling of the lips, which is not the case, as they are purely reed instruments. The correct statement of this fact is, however, made in another part of the book. Also, in one chapter the period of a sound wave in air, thirteen inches in wave-length, is made equal to the one-millionth of a second, instead of the one-thousandth, as it ought to be. Most of the illustrations are to the point, but there are possibly three or four which seem out of place in a work of this character.

T. C. M.

SPENCERIAN INTERMEDIATE COPY-BOOK. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

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KEEL'S SHORTER COURSE IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., New York.

CRAIG & STUART'S FIRST SIX BOOKS OF VIRGIL'S ÆNEID. Eldredge & Brother, Philadelphia, Pa.

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Spontaneous Generation, and the Hypothesis of Physiological Units. By Herbe Spencer. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

Origin of the Bismarck Policy. Crosby & Damrell, Boston. Price 30 cts.

Cole's Vocal Gymnastics and Composition. W. H. Cole, Wilmington, O.

The Relations of the Medical Profession to Modern Education. By Edwa S. Dunster, M.D. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

Record of Visits to the Primary Schools of the City of New York. By Joh Hecker, School Inspector.

Sixteenth Annual Report of the New Jersey State Normal School. John S. Har Principal.

Pennsylvania School Report for 1870. J. P. Wickersham, Supt.

Annual Report of the Schools of New Hampshire. A. C. Hardy, Supt.

Annual Report of the Memphis (Tenn.) City Schools. James T. Leath, Supt.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of Savannah, Ga. W. H. Baker, Supt.

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E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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THE GERMAN UNIVERSITIES.

16 TURNER STRASSE, 111 ETAGE,
Leipzig, Saxony, Dec. 27, 1870.

FRIEND WHITE: I have not been forgetful of my promise to write you, and have several times attempted to prepare a letter for your journal. My failure to accomplish this is due to the fact that I have been so occupied with my proper studies that I have found but little time to study the general plan of German education, and to write an article that would be at the same time suitable to your pages and likely to interest your readers. Nevertheless I am improving every opportunity that offers,—have visited many of the lower schools, and have made a few notes which I hope at some future day to elaborate. At this present, I propose to give you a few of the peculiarities of the German Universities, especially as regards the study of the physical sciences, although I shall attempt nothing like a systematic and exhaustive description.

In the first place, let me observe that if my notions of German Universities, previous to my coming here, are any criterion of those of my fellow-countrymen, your readers have altogether too high an opinion of their merits. For opportunities in special research, appliances needed for exhaustive study in almost any department of knowledge, eminent professors in their several branches, and, in fact, every thing that can alleviate the difficulties of the rugged hill of science, Germany stands at the head of the civilized world. This is praise enough to satisfy the most

enthusiastic of our German friends, and yet there are many features in the practical working of their system, which are altogether counter to our American notions of what is requisite to form an educated man. The most striking characteristic is the tendency to one-sidedness in education—that is, to concentrate every talent to the mastery of one department of knowledge, completely ignoring every other that does not minister to this. Now, although this practice is essential to the manufacture of great professors and profound specialists, it does not seem to me to be adapted to the formation of the ready handed and quick witted man, which our pioneer necessities demand. To my mind the training which a student receives in the best of our colleges, is preferable to that which the average German student gets.

The superiority of the German gymnasium over our high and preparatory schools can hardly be maintained. The students leave both at about the same age, after having received either the very same discipline or its equivalent. As far as my experience goes, the young American is about as well fitted to enter upon the higher branches of study as the young German. In our colleges the student has still a definite course of study before him, which includes many branches, while the German at once takes an elective course.

The mode of training also differs. In the German University all the teaching is by means of lectures with no further implied communication between the teacher and pupil; in our colleges, the daily labor is tested by question and answer. Many of my American friends here are warm in their approval of the lecture system, and I acknowledge the great advantage which comes from hearing a live man speak on a subject of which he is at once the master and the recognized exponent. For full grown men, whose preëminent need is to get the stimulus which comes only from the impulse of a master-mind, perhaps nothing could be better; but for boys half-trained and almost purposeless, the guiding hand of the pedagogue, the incentive of daily emulation, the correction of misconceived notions are an imperative necessity.

Then, again, it is quite as easy to obtain the degree of Doctor of Philosophy here as of Master of Arts in America. Those disposed to undervalue such academic honors, say that in either country they may be obtained by favor or by money; it is certain that in some places on both sides of the ocean they may be obtained with very little effort. I frequently hear the students

comparing the different universities with regard to the ease of obtaining the doctorate. They say that, at Rostock, one can be made a doctor merely by paying the fees and presenting a printed thesis; at Göttingen, one must have studied at least two branches, say chemistry and crystallography; at Heidelberg, he must submit to an oral examination on at least three branches, and so on. As I do not intend to apply for a degree, I have not made any careful inquiries on the subject, but I know of instances which justify the common report above quoted. Thus one of my friends obtained the very highest honors at Heidelberg, after sustaining an oral examination in crystallography, chemistry, and chemical physics, which are very closely related branches of study, and handing in a printed thesis and the fees. He was not required to have studied any thing else, and so far as the authorities are concerned, he may have been entirely ignorant of every other department of human knowledge. It is said to be an easier matter for a foreigner to obtain the degree than for a native, and in some universities this may be true. I know of one American who received the degree of doctor at Göttingen on chemistry and mineralogy, and whose education on other topics was hardly up to the high school standard.

I see but very little of the student life in Germany, being debarred from their society both by reason of my tastes and studies. Of course it varies greatly in different places as well as with the habits and age of the individual student. The students in general are given to social life among themselves. At every university you may see little groups wearing caps with bands of different colors, or adorned with a shoulder sash of silk ribbon. These belong to the so-called Kneipes, because the principal business of the Kneipe seems to be beer drinking and smoking. A student that belongs to a Kneipe frequently gets the reputation of being a great bummer. In some places, as at Heidelberg and at Bonn, the Kneipes are organized societies for dueling. Now, I know that this will shock your ideas of what the life of a student ought to be, and so I hasten to explain that these duels are ordinarily very harmless concerns, and generally without a particle of ill-will between the contestants. The heads of the several Kneipes, anxious to keep up established customs and to acquire glory for their little coteries, arrange how their followers shall be paired off, and when the gentle amenities of civilized life shall be exchanged. Usually there is some pretence of keeping the matter secret from the authorities, and on the day appointed the

two societies retire to some obscure place and make ready for their terrible struggle. The weapons are always swords, sharpened only at the tips. The furious duelists, breathing like two chimæras, are bandaged over the chests, necks, and arms with thickly quilted armor of leather and cloth, and, if new to bloodletting, are further protected by wearing goggles over their eyes and a thick cap on their heads so as to leave only the face unprotected. When these solemn preparations are completed, the signal is given—should I not say "the tocsin is sounded?"—the sinews of the fiery combatants are stiffened for the fray, the clash of swords begins, while their fellow Kneipes keep breathless silence. The first man that gets his face scratched is the vanquished, and with the scratch the note of victory is pealed by the friends of the conquering hero, and the battle ceases. Sometimes, I am sorry to say, the scratch is a serious gash which leaves for life a horrible scar on the face of the unlucky defeated. The most famous duelist in these days is an American who is said to have fought fifty duels. Pistols are never allowed, and I believe that it would be almost impossible to get up a duel among students that would seriously endanger life or limb.

From what I have seen of these students, I have come to like them heartily. Most of them are men grown, and are hearty, good-humored fellows, whose most serious fault is a rather too complacent opinion of their personal attainments and of the lofty position which Germany holds among nations. Since the opening of the present war, this latter feature has become wonderfully prominent, and, far from being peculiar to students, extends through all classes of society. My professor at Bonn was good enough to say, that "Americans succeeded very well in inventing mechanical contrivances, but they would never do for discoverers of scientific truth." This assumption crops out everywhere, and sometimes to such a degree that it would be intolerable, if it were not ludicrous from its extravagance. I, at first, was tempted to resent some of it; but found that, to do full justice to the subject, I should have to keep my quills constantly on the stretch like Shakespeare's "fretful porcupine", and so I have come to be as passive as an umbrella in a snow storm. Now as your experience must be the opposite of mine, you will not fail to observe that this characteristic entirely fails among those Germans who have adopted our country as their own. Singularly enough, in Europe, no people have the reputation of being so presumptuous and so full of assumption as Americans. If this

reputation is well founded, I own that I ought not to be casting stones, but, if I am, I am only pitching them back.

At home, we speak of German Universities as if all are alike; but they differ among themselves as much as our colleges. There are twenty-eight universities in central Europe, which may properly claim to be considered German. Of these the largest are in Berlin, Leipzig, Vienna, Heidelberg, Bonn, and Göttingen. Each of these has a corps of teachers numbering from one to two hundred regular professors, besides a large body of private docents. These professors are arranged in faculties, such as of Theology, Law, Medicine, Philosophy, Philology, etc., although the arrangement is more of the catalogue than of separate offices. The students generally attend only two or three lectures in a day, and by consequence go from one university to another according as the fame of one or another of the professors attracts them.

Thus, at present, Berlin is the great attraction for law students, Halle for theological, Vienna for medical, Leipzig and Bonn for chemical, and Heidelberg for those in physical science; but in the next ten years the order may be entirely changed, as the older lights die out and the newer flash into brilliance. Ten years ago Giessen was the recognized center of organic chemistry because Liebig was there; but now its glory is departed because the great chemist has gone to Munich. So also Göttingen draws fewer students in mineral analyses than formerly because Wöhler is a very old man, and is supposed to leave his laboratory much in the hands of his assistants. So Jena and Würzburg were once quite famous, but now have only a local reputation, while the universities at Wittenberg and Strasbourg are entirely dead.

Some of the universities are very small: thus that at Braunsberg has but nine professors, and only the faculties of Theology and Philosophy. Those at Rostock, Münster, and Innspruck are also quite below the second rank. Many of these smaller universities make no pretensions to teaching physical science, but no one is so small that it has no faculty of Theology and of Mental Philosophy.

I have visited a number of the chemical laboratories, and have been much interested in them. At Giessen I found the laboratory in which Liebig attained his reputation, and which is now under Prof. Will. As it is one of the oldest, so it is the worst I have seen. The rooms are dingy, small, and ill-arranged. At Wiesbaden I visited Prof. Fresenius. The laboratory is his private property, and is got up on the most economical scale in

what was originally a dwelling house, still I did not miss any of the appliances which are requisite for practice in analysis. In fact, many of the arrangements struck me as among the best I have seen. The professor's reputation draws to him quite a number of Americans, but the Germans think him too much interested in making technical analyses a source of profit. He also labors under the disadvantage of not having the fostering support of an university, but appears altogether too well contented with his own domain to wish to change his position.

At Marburg, I found Dr. Clausius in an old laboratory, built by Prof. Kolbe. By the successive efforts of these eminent men, the old building seemed to have taken a new lease of life, and to have become a very convenient home for modern science. Although Marburg was delightfully clean when I was there, and attractive from the breath of the fresh mountain air, it has the opposite reputation, and fails to secure a large number of foreign students.

At Heidelberg, Prof. Bunsen reigns the undisputed authority in inorganic chemistry. He has attained a deservedly high reputation for his methods of mineral and gas analyses, as well as for the numerous contrivances which are now everywhere in use to facilitate chemical manipulation. The professor is an unmarried man, over fifty years old, and blind of one eye. Whatever are his personal peculiarities, and he is said to have many of them, no other professor, that I have met, so completely secures the esteem and love of his pupils. All agree that he is the best, and some of them go so far as to say the only instructor in Germany for inorganic chemistry. His laboratory is not so large, nor so convenient as those that follow, but he is said to devote an unusual amount of pains on the progress of his pupils. Besides this, Heidelberg has Kopp in theoretical chemistry, Kirchhoff and Eisenlohr in physics, Fuchs in mineralogy, and, until recently, Helmholtz in general science; so that it has many attractions for the student of physical science. The only drawback is, that the cost of living is perhaps a fifth more than in places less frequented by tourists.

At Berlin, I failed to see Prof. Hofmann, although I had a good view of the laboratory. Singularly enough Prof. Hofmann has a less reputation here than with us, and many students who visit Berlin prefer Baeyer. His laboratory is one of the most showy in Europe, but he seems to lack in the ability to design a convenient laboratory, although he built both the Berlin and Bonn

laboratories. Whatever reputation he has is that of a lecturer, but he always draws a large number of students.

The laboratory at Bonn, where I worked three months, is almost palatial, and I should have remained longer had the department of analytical chemistry been fully organized. It is under the charge of Profs. Kekulé and Englebach, both excellent men. Prof. Kekulé teaches only organic chemistry, and has acquired a large reputation as being the exponent as well as the originator of many of the modern theories. I am much indebted to the painstaking care of Prof. Englebach, who is about the only professor here who does not publish his discoveries. He has been working on lavas for a dozen years, and refuses to print his results. I have no doubt that by next year the laboratory will be in full working order—and Bonn is as delightful a summer residence as one could wish to have.

Now I am in Leipzig, studying in the largest and most convenient laboratory in the world. It is capable of accommodating over 100 students with tables, and has besides large rooms for operations requiring space or likely to be disagreeable to others than the operator, who is supposed to delight in all odors he creates himself. Prof. Kolbe's forte is as much organic chemistry as Prof. Bunsen's inorganic, and students vibrate between them according as they wish one department or the other. Prof. Kolbe, though more eminent as a discoverer of new compounds, has not the reputation of Prof. Kekulé as a theorist; but, whatever may be his heterodoxy in theory, he is certainly a good guide in actual work, and has more conveniences for work in his laboratory than can be found elsewhere.

The laboratory at Göttingen is of the first class, a little larger than that at Heidelberg. I found Prof. Wöhler, though apparently feeble through age, at work on an analysis of a zinc ore. He showed me his treasures of the platinum metals and liquid carbonic acid. I had originally intended to study with him, but am glad I did not for reasons previously mentioned, which have since been confirmed by some of his students. The professor is personally one of the most engaging of men, kind-hearted, and extremely accurate in his methods.

These are all of the laboratories I have actually visited, and they are the principal ones in Germany. If any that read this are contemplating a visit to Europe for the purpose of studying chemistry, I should advise them to read pure chemistry at home, then to study inorganic analysis under Bunsen, organic chemis-

try under Kolbe, and to finish with the modern theories under Kekulé. If, however, they wish assaying and metallurgy, a year at Freiburg would be desirable also.

Besides these laboratories there are others at Munich, Carlsruhe, Tübingen, and Zurich, each of which has its own special merits, dependent, as I have before remarked, on the reputation of the professors. Liebig like Wöhler is old, and is said to have ceased from active work. Fittig at Tübingen is comparatively a young man, and has a suspicious reputation as a teacher. The chair at Zurich, vacated by the recent death of Bolley, is yet to be filled.

Now, as to the methods of instruction. The ordinary student, if a beginner, is set to work under the assistant, and follows essentially either the course laid down by Will or by Fresenius. When he has attained a little skill, he is set to work on some rare body, and kept at it often for months. Then he begins organic chemistry with analyses of sugar or starch, and then manufactures some organic compound, which he afterwards analyzes. At this point the greater number of professors begin to use him as a sort of assistant; that is, if they have some notion in their heads, which they think can be realized, the student is set to work under the minute direction of the professor to attain a result either positive or negative. If the professor is an honest man, as I am happy to say mine have been, he tells the student frankly what his notions are and what results he expects, and, in fact, takes the student into partnership. Supposing a satisfactory result is attained, it is published either under the name of the student or those of both professor and student. In this way of working, the student learns to know the modes of thought and manner of manipulation of men already practiced in discovery, and can not fail to be profited.

There are some teachers here who have the reputation of aggrandizing themselves at the expense of their students. That is, they set the poor tyro at work to chase up some of their half-formed theories, direct him to add this reagent on Monday, filter on Tuesday, precipitate on Wednesday, and so on through a never-ending round of chemical transformations, without leading him to think on a single reaction, or to understand what he is doing. If a thesis follows, the entire gain of the pupil is the glory of having his name annexed to that of his professor on the title-page. One poor fellow, that I heard of, spent an entire year in this way, and at the end knew no more of chemistry than when he began, and even did not understand his own paper.

I am sorry to say that I think that this system of exploitation is by no means uncommon, and I do not know of terms harsh enough to condemn it.

Besides this laboratory practice, the student attends the regular lectures of the professor, if he is so inclined, and as many others as he pleases. No questions are asked of him how he proposes to spend his time, nor is advice given unless asked. He may work much or little according to his fancy, and apparently with equal indifference of the professor. There was an idle American near me in the laboratory at Bonn, but the most that the professor felt himself called upon to say was, that he would never make a chemist, and to express his opinion to me that the fellow's time was thrown away; but no restrictions of any sort were laid upon him. He came and went as fancy suited him.

Now I can not help thinking that we do these things better. I am sure that we burn our little taper to better advantage, and I know that a beginner is set more rigorously at work and kept under a better arranged system by not a few teachers of chemistry in America; and I am satisfied that our boys ought not to be sent abroad until they are well grounded in the rudiments of knowledge, and have formed something like settled habits. The advantages that we can offer at home are absolutely all that a beginner requires, and it is only when he is ripe for special research, that the German University will be of any peculiar service to him.

When he reaches that point, it is well for him to go abroad, for there he will find advantages and coöperation of a sort that we do not offer, whether we can or not. One reason why we do not have these advantages is, because we have nowhere a sufficient fund to warrant a man in devoting his life to pure science. Our professors are, as a general rule, but half supported, and waste their energies in attempting to do too many things. Take the science of chemistry: in the University of Leipzig are five professors of chemistry, each taking a separate department; in Berlin, there are eight. With such a division of labor, each man may be expected to do something worthy. But there is no use in regretting what we shall continue to lack for some time to come. My pride in our teachers is, that we have been enabled by God's grace to do so much, and that we still have courage to go on.

The comparisons that I have drawn between the general diffusion of knowledge at home and abroad are not a little satisfac-

tory to my feelings as an American. I do not think that we have learned every thing; but I do believe that we use to good advantage the little that we know.

S. A. Norton.

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The Speaking Voice.

The proper training of the speaking voice is the best preparation for singing. In many points speech and song are identical. Listen to a child's tone in speech. Is it clear, sweet, melodious? If not, there is wrong management somewhere. Most little children, if healthy, will by nature make agreeable tones. They would continue to do so under proper training. It would cost little effort to keep them in the right path in this respect.

But we often hear a very faulty quality of voice from little children in the school-room and elsewhere. Whence comes it? In a great degree from imitation. They hear and catch disagreeable tones in the street, in the school-room, at home. If they never heard any but a sweet quality of voice, they would catch and retain pleasant intonations unconsciously. The inference is obvious; the ear should be cultivated in this respect. The little ones should have the opportunity to hear melodious sounds, as much as possible; and their attention should be directed to the quality of the sound, whether in musical instruments, in song, or in the speech of those about them. Thus will be established in their minds a standard of excellence as to quality of voice.

The teacher will do well to call the attention of the children to the sound of her own voice, and ask them to imitate her tones. For this purpose the various sounds of the vowels may be used, as well as familiar sentences. Take, for instance, the common salutations: "Good morning!" "How do you do?" etc., and require the children to repeat them politely and pleasantly—not loudly and with strained tones. Good instruction in reading is the best auxiliary to the singing lesson.

One test whether the child is in a way to use the voice properly in reading, speaking, or singing, is found in his countenance.

* Supervisor of Music in the Boston Primary Schools.

If he is straining the muscles of his face with scowls and frowns, he is probably straining his vocal organs also. A stranger to school customs, hearing and seeing such a child for the first time, might be prompted to ask, "Is he in pain?" And it is to be regretted that he would so often have occasion for the question during the reading and concert recitation in many of our schools. A placid, or better, a cheerful countenance accompanies the right method of vocalization in speech or song.

Above all, avoid a *noisy* use of the voice. There is a difference between tone and noise; and children should be taught to distinguish between them. *Yelling* in concert or single recitation, and sing-song methods of spelling and other exercises, are as destructive to the voice as they are offensive to true taste.

One way of breaking up false intonations in scholars is by entering into close and sympathetic conversation with them upon subjects in which they are interested, and thus making them forget the restraint and formalities of the school-room.

Another cause of faulty quality of voice—usually taking the form of a husky or half-formed tone—is diffidence; this includes bashfulness and conscious inferiority—the latter where the child comes from the home of poverty and degradation. The remedy in either of these cases is the same: *Encourage the child.*

Here, as elsewhere, ten little children need encouragement and incentive where one needs reproof or punishment. If he succeeds, approve him; if he fails, give him credit for what he has done, applaud the effort, and lead him to hope for better results next time. In a word, begin thus early to cultivate his self-respect.

In brief, children need training in the following points, to qualify them either to sing or read well:

1. Proper position of the body.
2. Right management of the breath.
3. Good quality of voice.
4. Correct sounds of the vowels.
5. Good articulation and pronunciation.
6. Intelligence.
7. Expression.

The discipline in these respects is best carried on in connection with the speaking voice.

Such a foundation being laid for instruction in the elements of music, the method hereafter given may be pursued without any doubt as to results. Children learn to sing as easily as to speak.

The question whether the child has a talent for music need no more be asked, than whether he has a talent for language before he begins to utter words, or before deciding whether it will be safe for him to attempt to acquire the language spoken by his parents. It requires no special gift for a child to learn French, German, English, or any other language, if he hears it at the right age and in the right way. So in music the same truth will hold.

The teacher need have no misgivings in commencing his task. The children *have* the gift, and will rather surprise us by its development, than fall short of our just expectations.

Of course we can not expect perfection in the use of the speaking voice before attempting to sing; and the question will naturally occur: How far is it required to carry the training in speech, before *beginning* to teach singing?

This would be a good test, viz: For each child to stand properly, look the teacher in the face, and pronounce his or her name with a clear, distinct voice *and with the proper inflections.*

On applying this test to a class of children who were in school their second year, the teacher was surprised that so few could speak their names so as to be understood by a stranger.

A very instructive lesson followed this trial. The teacher seeing this to be a reasonable test, applied herself energetically to instructing those who failed. She proceeded something after this manner:

Teacher. Now, children, I want you to tell me your names again, and I want you to speak just as distinctly as Mary Chapman did. And I want you to speak your *real names.* You must not say your *baby-names*, such as Jimmie, for James; Lizzie, for Elizabeth; Johnny, for John.

The first row, stand! The first boy will commence; tell your names in the order in which you stand.

First boy. Michael Donnelly [*letting his head drop as he began to speak.*]

T. [*Kindly.*] No, Michael. I will speak your name now, and you notice which way my voice goes,—Michael Donnelly. [*Michael does n't seem to understand; Mary Chapman holds up her hand.*]

T. Well, Mary?

Mary. Your voice went *up* when you said *Michael*, and *down* when you said *Donnelly.*

T. Mary may speak his name as I did.

Mary. Michael Donnelly.

T. That was right. Mary say it again, and Michael may say it after her.

Mary pronounces his name as before, Michael imitates her exactly, with a full consciousness of his success, and his countenance beams with delight at the approval of his teacher; and Mary looks more beautiful in the unconscious experience that "it is more blessed to give than to receive." So the teacher proceeds through the class with a very marked improvement, owing to Michael's success.

One very important result from this lesson, which did not occupy more than twenty minutes, was, that before the teacher was through she had six or eight volunteer assistant teachers who seemed desirous to share the honors of little Mary Chapman.

The Singing Voice.

Here, too, the first thing to which the teacher should give attention, is the quality of tone produced by the child. And we reiterate what was said above,—the different faults must be guarded against and removed. The "baby-tone"—with its accompanying "baby-talk"—which has perhaps been petted and cultivated at home, and called "cunning" at school, must give place to a smooth, round, pleasant quality,—that is, to a proper tone.

The harsh screaming which boys in particular so often adopt, must never be allowed. They can easily be led to distinguish between *noise* and music, and can at least be *educated* to prefer the latter. There is as much difference between the noisy quality, often heard in school-rooms, and a true musical tone, as between the crash of broken crockery and the ring of a silver bell.

The principal points which require attention in the training of a child's singing-voice are these:

1. Quality of Tone. It must be clear, melodious, promptly started, and evenly sustained.

2. Power of Tone. Not strained on the one hand, nor so feeble as to be imperfect or husky.

3. Length of Exercise. The voice must not be fatigued. The singing lesson should only be continued so long as the child enjoys it; never till he is physically or mentally weary.

4. Compass of Voice. The first time a child sings should be

in the middle register, or where he makes the notes with the least effort. The extremes of the voice, whether high or low, are to be avoided at first, and to be managed carefully when they are used.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—No. II.

BY GEO. S. ORMSBY.

A dissatisfaction with much that is presented in our text-books on English grammar, also with the results of grammatical instruction and study, has suggested considerable discussion in our educational periodicals, as well as in educational meetings. It is this feeling that prompts the writing of these articles; and yet they are not written in the spirit of hypercriticism, but with the earnest hope that some truth may be presented, useful to both teacher and pupil.

In my former article the interesting fact was presented, that, while authors of Latin and Greek grammars have been chiefly concerned as to the manner of presenting known and acknowledged grammatical truths, English grammarians have in no small degree differed as to the truth itself. The latter have asked not how acknowledged grammatical truth should be presented, but, "What is acknowledged grammatical truth?" In this article I desire to point out, if possible, one prominent reason why English grammarians differ so widely in many of the fundamental principles of English grammar. There is no special interest in the reason itself, and there would be no advantage in considering it, but that a knowledge of it will aid in revealing more clearly the difficulties appertaining to the subject, and thus we shall be the better prepared to perceive the truth itself.

Minor differences of opinion there are, and doubtless will continue to be, while the judgment of men differ in the consideration of the same proposition. These differences may appertain to the nomenclature of the science. One author may have an imperfect or pluperfect tense; another may call the same tenses by the name of past or past-perfect. One author may call a certain word a "demonstrative pronominal adjective"; another may call the same word a "demonstrative adjective pronoun", or simply a "demonstrative adjective." These are only different

names chosen to indicate one and the same thing, and they furnish no material for serious controversy.

There are two facts,—the one appertaining to the English language, the other to the Latin and other similar languages,—which are well known to all grammarians, but which have not been sufficiently regarded by them in the framing of their definitions and rules. The Latin language is an inflected language, and the grammar of that language has to do chiefly with forms, inflections; the English language is, for the most part, a non-inflected language, and the grammar of the English language must not deal chiefly with forms. The fact that the English language is not for the most part an inflected language, has not been duly considered by English grammarians. To test the correctness of this position, let us examine a few definitions and rules.

In an excellent Latin grammar now before me, I find the following definition of case or cases, viz: "Cases are those terminations of nouns which denote their relation to other words." These terminations are called forms of words, and hence case in Latin is simply a form of the word which indicates its relation to other words.

In an excellent English grammar now before me, I read the following definition of case, viz: "Case is that property of nouns and pronouns which shows how they are used in the construction of sentences." In this definition we are told that case is a property, and that this property indicates the use of words in the construction of sentences. In the definition of the Latin case, we are told that case is a form, and (changing the phraseology but not the meaning of the definition) this form indicates the use of words in the construction of sentences.

This thing in Latin which we call a termination, is something that can be seen; when we see it we know how the word is used. But what is this thing in the English definition that is called a property? We are told that it "*shows* how words are used in the construction of sentences." If this be true, it must be some thing that can be seen. It must be something equivalent to what we call a form.

The author of the definition under consideration, knows that it is not a form; and yet, in constructing a definition, he seems not to have been able to divest his own mind of the notion that case, in English as in Latin, is something that will indicate the relation of nouns to other words, or show the use of nouns and pronouns in the construction of sentences. In the mind of this English

grammarian there is little, if any, difference between case in English and case in Latin. He knows that case in English is not a form—the pronoun and the possessive case of nouns excepted—and yet, seemingly unable to divest himself of the form idea, he substitutes the word property for the word form or termination, which, if it means anything in this connection, means form or termination, or something equivalent to it, which can in some way be known in itself.

Case in Latin and Greek, and, indeed, in all inflected languages, is something that indicates—that denotes; and this idea is transferred from an inflected language to a non-inflected language, and some word is chosen to represent it, which word either means nothing at all, or conveys to the mind an idea similar to that conveyed by the word form or inflection.

Another English grammarian says, that case means the position which nouns occupy in relation to other words; and in defining each particular case, he says it "denotes"—"The nominative case denotes"; "The possessive case denotes", etc., implying clearly that there is something about the word, or in it, different from position, that denotes.

Another author says: "Case is a modification of the noun to distinguish its relation to other words"; and this is substantially the definition of Gould Brown. According to this, case is a modification, and evidently, in the mind of the author, this word modification has a signification akin to that of the phrase, "change of termination." Brown says: "Cases are modifications that distinguish the relations of nouns or pronouns to other words." He says: "The nominative case is that form or state of a noun or pronoun which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb." Here he indicates by the word *form* what he means by the word *modification.* Numerous definitions of other terms, and many rules also, might be adduced illustrative of the same fact, viz: that English grammar has been written in the interest of an inflected language; and this is one important reason why English grammarians differ so widely in the presentation of so called grammatical truths. And this, moreover, is one very important reason why the study of English grammar is so difficult. The terms used in our English grammars would be understood if used in descriptions of an inflected language, but when applied to non-inflected words, they have no meaning that the young learner can perceive and know; and right here, it seems to me, is the difficulty with those scholars who have affirmed that the English

language is a "grammarless tongue." They have assumed that grammar is necessarily chiefly concerned with forms; and, since the English language is for the most part a formless or uninflected language, it can therefore have no grammar.

THE ENGLISH GRAMMAR MUDDLE.

BY HON. W. C. HOWELLS.

In the January number of the NATIONAL TEACHER is an article by Mr. Ormsby, of Xenia, on "English Grammar," in which the writer makes several pointed queries and good suggestions, that will be of little value, unless he or some one else shall further pursue the subject. Lest no one responds, I would like to discuss, if nothing more, some of his suggested points.

If it be true, as Mr. Ormsby very strongly intimates, and as expressed by Richard Grant White, that "English is a grammarless tongue", it is rather a solemn thing to contemplate the literal wheelbarrow-load of English grammars in use in our common schools, and the time absolutely wasted by thousands of our young people in trying to learn them, and who, as the result of their most faithful studies, only fill their memories with jargon. For more than forty years, I have seen and regretted the utter want of anything like a sensible English grammar in our schools; and I have wondered if the time would come when the case would be bettered, vainly hoping for a reformer to make his appearance. But as each new author has presented a text-book for the schools, I have been dismayed to see the subject more complicated than ever. I was gladdened with Grant White's declaration, that there was no grammar belonging to the English tongue, as something that would awaken our teachers to the facts in the case.

He who has paid any attention to the development of language, will have noticed that, from the time when the earlier tongues crystallized into inflectional forms under the regular laws of grammar, there has been a steady tendency to simplify and throw off the terminal signs and inflections. Each modern language has improved upon its predecessor by casting off some termination or irregularity, becoming more general in its relation to rules, and taking a place under general laws of grammar less affected by its rules, and more under the direction of the speaker

or writer. Thus we find the English language almost free from those forms, for whose proper relative arrangement the rules of grammar are necessary. If we use grammatical terms rigidly, according to their meaning, we shall find that they can not be made applicable to our language to any considerable extent; and there are not even examples to be found in it for many of the essential terms of the science. Our plurals of nouns are almost absolutely formed by the addition of *s;* our verbs are nearly all regular; we have no passive voice; we have no future tense, unless it be the imperative, which, in that case, has neither past nor present; our tenses most singularly accord with the true philosophy of our use of time in expressing only present and past, while the future is made to depend upon the contingency expressed in *will* and *shall*, combined with the infinitive; while the regular verb varies its termination only three times for number and person; there is no variation of the noun by case, except the addition of *'s* to form a possessive, which many grammarians insist is an adjective; and gender, as a grammatical term, is unknown to the language. But, nevertheless, we can express ourselves with greater precision than can be done in Latin, with its complete grammatical structure; and we combine our words so as to make them more delicately expressive, than any amount of inflections would enable us to do. In this combination, with the use of auxiliary verbs, we compensate for the want of moods, tenses, voices, and cases, as well as inflections. For instance, we form our future tense,—not of the verb, but of a phrase,—by introducing the words *will* and *shall*, expressive of determination and compulsion; and we make a passive phraseology by combining the verb *to be*, expressive of a state of existence, with some adjective derived *participially* from the verb expressing the kind of action to which we are passive. These combinations serve the same purpose with us, as the changes of the verb by inflection do in the Latin, from which language we originally transferred our English grammar. But these phrases are *free*, not *literal* translations of the verbal inflections by which the ideas intended are expressed in the strictly grammatical languages. The idea is as well and often better rendered, while the manner of expression is more immediately under the management of the speaker with us, than if we were limited to strict grammatical inflections.

The tendency of modern languages—and especially English—to throw off these inflections, and use the word as nearly as pos-

sible in its radical form, places language in this respect in subjection to logic rather than grammar, to ensure certainty and correctness of expression. The propriety of an English sentence will almost invariably secure its grammatical correctness. Those who make use of proper words, according to the plain principles of logic, will scarcely ever violate any of the rules of grammatical construction. The man unaccustomed to writing, may make a chance blunder. But in speaking English we are constrained by the fitness of things properly to arrange our words; since their correct relative position in a sentence, is necessary to fix the meaning of the sentence. In short, we depend so little upon grammar for correct speaking in English, that we ought to adapt our systems of instruction in this *foreign* science of grammar to the circumstances of the case, and teach it in that form that will be most available, with the least labor. We should cut down the list of technical terms in what is called etymology and the rules of syntax to the lowest number consistent with the business of correctly shaping sentences. Where errors can not be committed, there is no need of rules to guard against them; and, of course, time and labor are wasted in learning them. The legitimate use of grammar is not half so much to guide us in the use of a language that we know, as to enable us to learn some other in which the inflection of words makes the rules and routine of grammar necessary to the understanding of them. Thus, if we study Latin and Greek, we must learn their grammars, that we may know how to follow the words through their changes of declension and conjugation. With English it is not so; for our words pass through so few changes that even the foreigner will recognize them; each form takes its place in the dictionaries; and any one can combine them who knows their meaning—and this is because the English is what Grant White calls it, "a grammarless tongue."

But our school teachers—our "educators", and particularly those who have school grammars to sell—will ask, Is English grammar to be driven from our schools? and are we not to teach it at all? I would ask, Do you teach it now, from the half score of systems at present in use, piled up in series of three or four parts? You teach a mass of something that will come partly under the heads of grammar, rhetoric, elocution, logic, etc.; but it is neither English grammar nor grammar in general. If you would teach grammar, you must do it in connection with a language where it exists. It can not be taught completely in appli-

cation to English; as it only applies to English in parts, and these are not enough to present a comprehensible view of it. Therefore, in our schools (both the common and select), I would substitute the study of Latin grammar for the present study of what is taught as English grammar. It would be the readiest way of teaching the English, while it would have this great advantage of economically giving every pupil a start in the study of languages. I appeal with confidence to any scholar who has studied Latin, and particularly those who learned their English grammar in this way, to say, if I am not right in the assertion that it is easier to master a Latin grammar, than to get a clear idea of the science from our present English systems that depend so much for their principles upon the mere *dicta* of the authors. Let a youth learn Latin grammar, and he will be able to transfer the grammar to the English, and apply the principles and rules as far as they are applicable. But one of his first discoveries will be that the English is wanting in inflections and terminal changes, though he will see that, as far as they exist, the same rules will apply; and where they do not exist, he ought to know that the rules are unnecessary. It is folly to call our combinations, by which we make our equivalents of the Latin inflections, the modes and tenses of our verbs; for they are not such, and it only disgusts those who know better, to insist that it is so. It is wrong to teach the youth so, for it is false teaching; and he will be disgusted when he sees better, and will feel outraged in having had his time and labor spent so unprofitably.

I am aware that this proposition of mine will be regarded as a bold innovation, and perhaps denounced as radical. But it has the merit of successful trial through the whole period of the existence of the English language down to the second quarter of this century. The fine scholars of the sixteenth, seventeenth, and eighteenth centuries learned their grammar in the way I propose; and, had they not, our language would not have been what it is. I am well aware that an English *accidence* could be formed, that would direct one who only speaks English, and has not the time to devote to a proper study of Latin grammar as I propose; and such a work would be most useful, and could be made very advantageous as a school study; but it would not teach the science of grammar, because the examples can not be given in English. Such a system of English grammar as I would suggest, would, of course, be very short, with few technical terms and few rules; for few will suffice—and it is surprising how few.

It might astonish some of our authors of "Primary", "First", "Second", and "Advanced" parts of English grammar, if I would prove that I can put all that is necessary in that way into ten pages of this journal, and that in a shape that can be understood. I know that parents who buy school books, would be agreeably surprised with such a plan in operation. Having no axes to grind, I offer my suggestions the more freely. Should opportunity offer, I may give teachers a specimen of my boiling-down process. But I should like to hear from them; for I know of no field of discussion that could be more usefully entered upon.

A LETTER FROM DR. HOLBROOK.

[This letter from our boyhood mate and life-long friend was not written for publication, but its many good points induce us to use the granted permission to publish it.]

OFFICE OF THE HERALD OF HEALTH,
New York, Dec. 14, 1870.

My Dear White: I have received from your publisher three of the most beautifully gotten-up arithmetics that I have seen. The paper and type are perfect, and will not unnecessarily tax the eyes of pupils. But best of all I like your way of putting the subject. If I had had these fine books to learn my lessons from when a boy, it would have saved me many a weary hour. Did I ever tell you my first experience in studying mathematics? I don't know how old I was, but presume not more than five or six. Armed with Colburn's Mental Arithmetic, I proceeded to the old school-house that once stood on the south-west corner at Mantua Corners (now a stone store stands there), where I had the task of learning the multiplication table assigned me for my first lesson. Do you remember this old arithmetic? The edition that I had, had the table printed in this way:

Two times one are how many?
Two times two are how many?
Two times three are how many?

I commenced to learn the lesson. In due time I was called up to recite. Confident of my success, I boldly began—

Two times one are how many?
Two times two are how many?

I think I had not finished the second line before I was ordered to take my seat, and try again. No explanation was given. Crestfallen, I took my seat. As soon as I had fairly recovered my wits, I began again to pour over the lesson in the same way. I was not called to recite again till the next day when the same scene was enacted, and again the third day, and, for ought I know, I should have been there still saying, "Two times one are how many", had not I asked another boy to let me see his book; when lo! a discovery, that Colburn as I had it was different from his. I went home a wiser boy. I said to my father that I wanted a new arithmetic, one from which I could learn the multiplication-table. The next day I went to school with a Smith's. I shall always respect that book. From it I learned that two times two are not "how many". My father said I was to have a quarter of a dollar when I had learned the table (it was in the days of silver quarter dollars); I learned it within a week. That quarter looked bigger to me than a thousand dollars does to day.

Friend White, what a contrast between your book and my first mental arithmetic. But teachers have changed more than books. I remember the first day I ever went to school in winter. We had no such comfortable houses and desks as now. (They are bad enough now in many places.) An immense fire place, filled with about the one-eighth of a cord of wood, warmed the room, and blistered our tender faces. I had a Boy's bench in front of the back row. There was no back to it. The teacher came round, as I supposed, to make my acquaintance and speak a kind word to me. I looked up at him, and smiled as prettily as I could. I never knew why he did it, but the first thing that I knew was he had hit me a severe rap on the right ear with his ruler. All I remember was that he said, "Young lad, attend to your lessons." I have forgotten his name, but I never think of the insult to my childood, without thanking God that things are not as they used to be.

We have much to learn yet. I do not know but it is quite as much of an insult to childhood to confine them in school at all before they are eight years old, and cramp the free spontaneous activity of their little bodies and young minds, as to hit them over the head with a ruler. I often go into New York schools, and, though I see much that I take pride in, I see much that is quite as disgraceful as anything that I ever experienced in boyhood. I saw only the other day, in one of our best schools, a teacher *showing off* the attainments of a little girl six years old, the child

of parents well known all over this country as distinguished editors. The little girl was precocious; her body was frail and her brain active. She ought not to have been in school at all, but where she could grow and eat hearty food with relish. I do not believe in this hot-house development of children. Nature does not indicate it. Art and religion protest against it. Are we never going to have an educational system in harmony with nature? Huxley, in his last great address on spontaneous generation, tells us that 90,000 children have been lost in England in three years by scarlet fever alone. It is not much better in this country. The number lost by other ways is also immense. We ought to turn our attention to some methods of education that shall prevent this loss, this wicked waste of life, as well as the far more atrocious offense against the happiness of the survivors.

Let us work together for the day when hygiene and mathematics shall equally pervade every sphere of education; when education, itself hygienic, attractive, and allied with practical usefulness in every branch of art and industry, shall extinguish vice and misery by making lessons pay at once the teacher and the pupil. You and our kindergarten folks make the first step to this, by a work at once amusing and practical. Next we shall have miniature model farms and workshops; and, finally, education shall not only embrace a knowledge of how to read, write, and spell, but how to live noble and manly and womanly lives.

My letter is quite too long.

With best wishes, sincerely,

M. L. Holbrook.

HOW TO TEACH ADDITION.

BY N. A. CALKINS,*

Having for several years observed the practices of teachers of elementary arithmetic, and having just finished reading an article in your journal for February, "How to teach Addition," I am led to ask for information, "Is the *process* of adding taught in school?" What *addition* is, we are told abundantly. Many explanations of it are given. Rules for addition are as numerous as the text-books. But back of all this, or beyond it, or above it, or under-

* Assistant Superintendent of Schools, New York City.

neath it, is there not something else of greater importance to be taught? *How should* children "find the sum of two or more numbers?" *How do* they usually find it? Should we teach addition as "a process of *counting* together numbers of the same kind to find their sum?"

First ideas of numbers must come from counting; but when we deal with symbols of numbers, and wish to find the sum of the numbers represented by all the given symbols or figures, must we still *count these numbers* together? Will this process insure either accuracy or rapidity? My own observation leads to the conclusion, that the process of finding the sum of numbers by counting them together, causes frequent mistakes.

That the point upon which I desire information, may not be misunderstood, I will try to describe the process by which our teachers in New York City try to train their pupils in adding.

After the children have been properly taught numbers by means of the numeral frame, blackboard, and slates, so that they can readily read and write any number from one to one hundred, they are then taught the addition-table by *decades;* first from the blackboard, in the following form:

2	12	22	32	42	52	62	72	82	92
2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2
4	14	24	34	44	54	64	74	84	94

After all the numbers, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, have thus been added to *two* and its decades, *three* is taken up in the same manner, and each number from 3 to 9 added to 3 and its decades, as before. The work is thus continued from the blackboard, from slates, and orally, until the pupils can instantly tell the sum of any single figure when added to any number below one hundred. By this means the pupils are also made *to know* what unit figure any two numbers will produce when added. Thus they are prepared for the *process* of addition, so as to be able to add rapidly and accurately without counting. This *process* is taught in the following manner: A column of figures is written on the blackboard, and the pupils are required to name the *unit* figures only, that will be produced by adding the several numbers together. As the teacher points successively to each figure, the pupils name only the *unit figure* in the several sums, until they acquire the habit of naming them rapidly and accurately; thus, 2, 6, 2, 4, 9, 1, 7, 2, 5. After repeating this two or three times, they may commence at

3
5
6
2
5
2
6
4
2

the top. and proceed in the same manner; thus, 3, 8, 4, 6, 1, 3, 9, 3, 5. When the pupils can thus name the *unit* figures rapidly, they are taught to add and name the full sum ; thus, 2, 6, 12, 14, 19, 21, 27, 32, 35. When this *process* of teaching addition is thoroughly mastered, the pupils will add columns of ten, fifteen, or twenty figures as readily and accurately as those with five or six figures.

Is this or any similar plan generally pursued for teaching the *process* of addition? Do many teachers leave their pupils to find how to obtain the sum of two or more numbers as best they can? Is the habit of counting fingers, or marks, a common one among pupils, while finding "the sum of two or more numbers"? Can your readers inform me of a better way for teaching the *process* of addition than the one which I have briefly described above?

I shall be happy to receive any information upon this matter, as I deem it one of great importance to a successful use of the knowledge imparted in our schools.

HOME TRAINING IN THE UNITED STATES.

It is a matter of general regret among Americans, though I did not observe that any steps were taken to remedy the acknowledged evil, that parental authority over the young is brief, weak, and lessening. Such is the precocious spirit of independence generated by the political institutions of the country and the general current of social life, that boys and girls of twelve or fourteen think themselves quite competent to decide many questions for themselves and do decide them, on which English boys and girls of eighteen or twenty would still feel bound to consult and obey their parents. And as in England, so in America, the lower you descend in the social strata, the more markedly this tendency exhibits itself. It was piteous and saddening to see, as I had occasion to see frequently when mothers would come to the office of a superintendent of schools to excuse or complain of the truancy of their children, parents helpless to control the wills and even the caprices of lads of eleven or ten, or still younger years. It is not a natural nor a normal state of things; every well-wisher to the United States,—every one who would desire to see that great commonwealth equal to the mighty destiny that lies before her,—can not but hope that, for so manifest an inversion of a great social law, a remedy may soon be found."
—*Fraser's English Report.*

Editorial Department.

—— We have received several contributions on English Grammar, called out by Mr. Ormsby's article in our January number, and all evidently written under the impression that he did not intend to consider the subject further. We ought to have announced that this article was introductory to a *series* to appear in the successive numbers of this journal. The second article came a little too late for our February issue, but the concluding three papers are already prepared, and there will be no further break in their publication. Our readers will be glad to know that Mr. Ormsby does not stop with criticism; that his last two papers present what he believes to be true. The publication of the thoughtful article by ex-Senator Howells, editor of the *Ashtabula* (O.) *Telegraph*, before the conclusion of Mr. Ormsby's articles, will be generally approved. It is one of those radical articles which provoke thought and wholesome discussion. He makes a square issue with the general practice of the schools, and his protest against the present class of English grammars is as earnest as Prof. Suliot's former pleas for a "Common-Sense Grammar." It is certainly high time to determine *what* constitutes English grammar, and *when* it should be taught. The subject needs a more thorough investigation by American teachers than it has yet received.

—— Prof. Norton's letter concerning the German Universities is a valuable addition to our knowledge of these institutions. He is not only a competent observer, but he has had the opportunity of observing them from the inside as well as the outside—from the stand-point of the student as well as that of the visitor. We are not surprised that these adequate opportunities for forming a correct judgment have resulted in a discount of the popular estimate of their superiority for purposes of general education. Most American visitors to European universities are captivated by the completeness of their appointments, and enthusiastically accept all that is claimed for them. Prof. Norton's statement respecting the preparation furnished by the German gymnasiums is quite contrary to our impression. We had supposed that the qualifications required for admission to a German university were quite or nearly equal to those demanded for graduation in an American college—especially in the languages and mathematics. Turning to Commissioner Hoyt's late report on "Education in Europe and America" (p. 338), we read: "The total of qualifications for the *Abiturienten-Examen* at the close of the gymnasial course is quite up to those demanded at our best collegiate institutions in America, and very much higher than those demanded by many of our so-called universities for the degree of bachelor of arts." We are disposed to accept the *inside* observation as the more reliable. We hope soon to lay before our readers the results of Prof. Norton's investigation of elementary education in Germany.

— PROF. NORTON'S favorable reference to American colleges as compared with the German Universities presents a striking contrast to the sweeping disparagement of American higher education, now so common. There seems to be a sort of "University" mania in this country, and even men of education are talking of the great advantage which would result, if all American colleges were swept from existence, and in their places were reared a few great "State Universities", with a grand "National University" at their head. No where is this spirit of college disparagement more injurious and senseless than in Ohio. Not a few, even of those who are not the victims of the State University malady, talk as though Yale and Harvard, and perhaps the Michigan University, are the only institutions in this country furnishing even a tolerable liberal education. Ohio colleges are indiscriminately sneered at as "one-horse" affairs, and this is done by men who profess a deep interest in the development and progress of their own State. It is true that Ohio has no college equal to Yale or Harvard in resources, appointments, or patronage, but she has several which promise to equal the present Yale or Harvard before they have existed half as many years. It should not be forgotten that a great institution, like a great man, is a growth. Moreover, the value of the advantages furnished by the smaller American colleges, is greatly underestimated. So far as we are competent to judge, the better class of Ohio colleges turn out as thorough students as Yale or Harvard, and their graduates are, at least, as successful and eminent as teachers, ministers, physicians, lawyers, judges, or statesmen. The special advantages of a great institution, with hundreds of students, are, in a measure, offset by the lack of individual instruction and attention. Too much of the instruction is committed to tutors. We agree that there are too many college foundations in this country; that it would be better to concentrate efforts and resources on fewer institutions—not to abandon but to strengthen and perfect the American college system. We hope also to see the American University, but when it comes, it will not be in the place of our present colleges. It will stand *above* them.

— THE *Herald of Health* for March contains a contribution on "School-houses", which, though wordy and sensational in style, contains several good suggestions. It is claimed that the modern school house, with its massive proportions and improved conveniences, has given increased dignity to the teacher's calling—has made education a "cause" and teaching a "profession." There is a large grain of truth in this statement. The improvement of the school-house is both cause and effect of school progress. But the modern school-house is censured for its failure duly to care for the health and safety of its inmates. They are too much exposed to the danger of fire and panic. The air comes up from the cellar impure, and is soon filled with the dust of chalk and dirt, and the seats, especially for the smaller children, interfere too much with freedom of attitude and motion. They do not meet the kindergarten idea. The writer urges that a school house should have (1) "plenty of room around it"—an acre for every hundred pupils; (2) "a constant and unfailing supply of water"—enough to meet every need of thirst or cleanliness; (3)

"outbuildings ample in number, easily reached and without exposure, and kept pure from nuisances"—a condition often sadly and shamefully neglected; (4) "broad door-ways, broad stair-cases, and wide and airy entrance halls"; (5) "plenty of light", with arrangements for adapting the same to the needs of the pupil; (6) "good ventilation"—but the writer shows that he does not know how it is to be secured; and (7) "provision for ease of posture and freedom of motion."

——It is frequently asserted that there is a decline in the manners of the young—that there is more dress than formerly, but less civility; more "airs" but less courtesy. A New York paper traces this decadence to the influence of the public schools, and charges that there is no feature of their management more deficient than that which manifests itself in the ill manners of the pupils. This charge does not surprise us, for what defect or wrong in society is not traced by certain writers to the schools? Then, too, how rapidly every thing is deteriorating! What a decline there is in health, thought, manners, morals, virtue, and industry! Nothing is what it used to be! Whether there is a decadence in manners we can not say—our observation is not sufficiently wide—but it is evident that there is no lack of ill manners, and there are several prolific sources of this evil to be found *outside* of our schools. Our teachers certainly have a sufficiently heavy contract in *correcting* rudeness and ill breeding, without engaging in their manufacture, and it is possible that many are culpable for a neglect of this important duty. Our public schools should assiduously cultivate habits of civil and courteous behavior, and this must be done both by precept and example, in season and out of season. Such training is as important as instruction in arithmetic or English grammar. Moreover, the manners of a school should never be graded down to the average pupil, but *up* to the teacher's standard and example. Good manners should never be one of the teacher's personal wants.

——A RECENT issue of the *New York Tribune* contains an interesting sketch of the life and works of Noah Webster. It states that he was deterred from entering upon the practice of law by the distracted state of the country, and, as a temporary expedient, he resorted to the business of teaching, first in Hartford, Ct., in 1779, and then in Goshen, N. Y., in 1782. While engaged in teaching, he began the preparation of the American Spelling Book, the title being subsequently changed to the Elementary Spelling Book, an English grammar, and a reader. More than fifty million copies of the speller have been sold, and the present annual sales exceed one million copies. The average rate of manufacture for fifty years past has been over five copies a minute for the ten working hours of each day. It is estimated that more than fifty million American youth have used this speller, and that to this, above all else, do the American people owe the unity of their language. A copyright of less than one cent for each book sold, afforded Dr. Webster an adequate income during the thirty years which he devoted to the preparation of his large dic-

known wherever the English language is spoken as "Webster's Una- Dictionary." This work is now regularly issued in London, and both nd and in this country it is regarded as the highest authority. Most n abridgements of this great work have been republished in England, rge sale, and the sales of the American editions are enormous. More s dictionaries are sold (including the abridgements) than of all other dictionaries combined. The *Tribune* estimates that the Webster books, g the speller, which have been manufactured, would make "a pile of ss magnitude than the great Pyramids of Egypt."

THE EXAMINATION OF TEACHERS.

xperience of all systems of public education has shown the necessity of g the schools against incompetent and unworthy teachers. Hence in systems provision is made for the examination of applicants for the s position. In Massachusetts these examinations are conducted by a tee in each town. In Pennsylvania this duty is performed by the county superintendent, who holds a public examination of applicants in each p of the county. These examinations are often largely attended by directors and by the patrons and friends of the schools generally. In xcept in those cities and villages which have local examiners, the duty ining applicants for a teacher's certificate is entrusted to county boards miners, each consisting of three examiners, appointed by the probate or a term of two years. These three methods of examining teachers, d to suit local needs, are the prevailing methods of the country.

ave not space this month to compare their merits further than to re- at, if the number of applications rejected is a fair test, the Ohio system ost efficient. It puts teachers through the examining mill once a year, verage, and the fact that twenty per cent. of the applications are re- shows that these examinations are not a mere form.

he Ohio system has one serious defect. It fails to recognize professional s—those whose attainments, experience, and success entitle them to a ermanent membership in the profession. So long as every school-room closed against all teachers as often as once every two years, and so no teacher can cross a county line without reëxamination, teaching is y recognized as a profession.

defect is only partially removed by the provision for State Certificates, r life and issued to teachers of "eminent professional experience and ' This recognizes teaching to be a profession, and, as far it goes, it is excellent feature of our system. But it necessarily reaches too few s to meet fully the demands of the profession. It needs to be supple- by some provision which shall duly recognize the professional standing w teachers in every county, not teachers in graded schools alone, but achers of country schools. What is needed is a grade of professional

certificate *between* the state certificates and the county certificates, valid for at least five years and in any county in the State. We believe that there are more than a thousand teachers in Ohio worthy of such a professional recognition.

Feasible and safe plans for issuing such a grade of state certificates can be easily devised. The certificate may be made attainable only by teachers who have received successively at least two county certificates of the highest grade, and an examination of applicants for it may be held in each county each year. These examinations may be conducted by the county examiners, assisted by one or more persons appointed by the State Commissioner of Common Schools, or by the county teachers' association. The questions used should be prepared by the State Board of Examiners, and should be sent to each county under seal, to be opened publicly at the examination, to be conducted strictly in accordance with the printed directions accompanying the questions. The examining committee, consisting of the county examiners and the person or persons appointed to represent the State or the teachers, or both, should examine the answers, and send the results, with a recommendation of applicants believed to be worthy of the certificate, to the State Examiners, who, if satisfied that the examination had been properly conducted and that the applicants recommended are worthy, should issue certificates of the professional grade described, neatly printed on parchment. The examination papers of all recommended applicants might also be forwarded to the State Board. This is the outline of a plan which we think would work well.

Another plan suggested is the division of the State into districts, each to be composed of several counties, and having a board of examiners entrusted with the duty of examining applicants for this grade of certificate. This might work well so far as the teachers in cities and large towns are concerned, but, unless the examinations were held in the several counties, it would practically place the certificate beyond the reach of country teachers, who, being unknown to the examiners, would hesitate to incur the expense involved in an attempt to secure it Moreover, the examiners should know *personally* that the applicants recommended by them have a well-earned reputation as succesful and progressive teachers. Other objections to this plan occur to us.

CONVENTION OF SCHOOL EXAMINERS.

At the call of the Commissioner of Common Schools, the examiners met in the hall of the high school building, Columbus, on Wednesday, Feb. 15, 1871, and organized by electing Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia, president, and Daniel Worley, of Canton, secretary.

Messrs. Welsh of Fairfield county, Prof. Williams of Delaware, Thompson of Miami, Harper of Shelby, and Mykrantz of Williams, were appointed to report on matters of business for the Convention. While the committee were out, delegates from twenty-three county boards and from three city boards presented their names, and were recorded as members of the Convention.

The business committee reported the following topics for discussion:

1. Should examinations be oral, written, or mixed?
2. Days of examination: Should there be one or more successive days at each?
3. Should the same low-grade certificates be granted more than once?
4. Should examinations be held during the continuance of an institute?
5. Should the number of branches required by law be increased or diminished?
6. Percentages: What should be required?
7. What distinction should there be in the character of questions in making percentages?
8. How far should topical examinations be employed?
9. Who should be examiners?

On motion, the fifth topic was taken up for discussion. Pending the discussion, it was moved that it be the sense of the Convention that the number of branches required by law, should be increased. The general ground taken against the motion was, that, in the experience of examiners, it was a difficult matter to get teachers for our schools who could, even tolerably, meet the present demand of the law, and that we ought certainly to reach that before reaching out beyond. In favor of the motion, it was claimed that we had been standing still for twenty-five years, and that this stand-still itself caused much of the deficiency complained of; also, that successful teaching required a more extensive, general knowledge than many applicants now possessed, and that something more was necessary to stimulate teachers to greater efforts in advancing themselves for the work in hand. It was argued that the advance would be best secured if not pushed too rapidly; one step at a time is enough; besides the elevation of the schools could only be secured by elevating the qualifications of the teachers, for narrow teachers make narrow schools.

The motion was agreed to; when Mr. Hancock moved that, after one year's notice, United States History should be added to the branches now required, which motion was also carried. After providing that an evening session should be held, and that this should terminate the present meeting of the Convention, Messrs. Thompson of Miami, Williams of Delaware, and Smith of Montgomery, were appointed a committee on permanent organization to report at the evening session.

School-Commissioner Henkle called attention, as the President also had previously done, to a bill now before the Legislature, releasing lady applicants from paying the examination fee of fifty cents, and one reducing it for ladies to thirty-five cents. After some discussion, in which the unanimous opinion seemed to be that the fee should be required of female as well as of male teachers, and that the proposed legislation would work serious harm to our school-work, on motion of Mr. Deuel, of Champaign county, the following preamble and resolution were unanimously passed:

WHEREAS, The fee paid by applicants for certificates is the chief support of teachers' institutes; and, whereas, teachers' institutes are among the most important educational agencies: therefore,

Resolved, That the reduction or abolition of this fee in any respect would be highly detrimental to the cause of education.

Topic No. 1 was then taken up for discussion, and it seemed evident that as yet no great uniformity had been reached by examining boards either with respect to conducting the examinations, the requirements made of teachers, or the tests upon which certificates were issued. Making due allowance for local

peculiarities, there was an evident desire for greater uniformity in all parts of the State. Some of the speakers advocated oral examinations as having peculiar claims; others made the same claim for exclusively written examinations, but the general sentiment seemed to be that both methods could be used with greater advantage than either one alone. Upon this discussion no action was taken. Adjourned to 7 o'clock P.M.

EVENING SESSION.

After the reading and correction of the minutes of the afternoon session, the committee on permanent organization reported as follows:

ART. I. This Association shall be called the Association of the School Examiners of Ohio; and any school examiner, state, county, or local, may become a member by attending its sessions.

ART. II. The sessions shall be annual at such places and times as the executive committee shall decide.

ART. III. The officers, elected annually, shall be a president and secretary, who, with five additional members, shall constitute an executive committee, who shall arrange for the business of the session—a majority of whom shall be a quorum to transact business. (Signed by the Committee.)

This report was accepted and adopted, and Messrs. G. S Ormsby and Dan'l Worley were respectively elected president and secretary for the ensuing year. As additional members of the executive committee, Messrs. Findley of Summit, Long of Jackson, Smith of Montgomery, Williams of Delaware, and Mykrantz of Williams, were elected.

On motion, the sixth topic was discussed. This discussion soon became a general experience meeting, and the remarks of the speakers had to be heard to be appreciated; suffice it to say, it was good to be there, and absentees missed a rich and rare treat. During the discussion, by order of the Convention, the roll of cities and counties represented was called, and delegates answered with regard to antedating certificates, extending them, and renewing them without any reëxamination. The practice of antedating and extending was found to be pretty generally prevalent, but that of renewing certificates without reëxamination prevailed only in a very few of the counties. On motion the Convention resolved that in its judgment it is contrary to the spirit of the law to antedate or extend certificates, or to renew them without re-examination.

By permission Mr. White presented the outlines of a plan for introducing a grade of professional certificates between the two years' county and the perpetual state certificates, to be good for a period of say five years in any county in the State. Mr. White, in connection with School-Commissioner Henkle, was requested to use his endeavors to have some satisfactory provision of this kind engrafted upon the school system of Ohio, during the present session of the Legislature.

The thanks of the Convention were unanimously returned to the Columbus Board of Education for the use of the hall during our sessions. The secretary was ordered to prepare an abstract of the proceedings for publication in the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY.

On motion, the Convention adjourned to meet in Columbus next winter, upon the call of the executive committee. DAN'L WORLEY, *Sec'y.*

THE SELF-REPORTING SYSTEM.

The successful use of the self-reporting system depends upon several important conditions: 1. The items reported must be so definite that there be no honest doubt in a pupil's mind respecting the correctness of his report. 2. The report must be so called for as to make the successful practice of deception quite impossible. 3. The moral sentiment of the school must be such as to condemn any attempt to deceive. 4. The school must be under such control and there must be such general good order as to bring a large majority of the reports fully up to the standard. The first condition specified condemns the practice of requiring pupils to report their general deportment on a prescribed numerical scale, the highest number denoting "perfect" conduct, and deductions being made according to the nature of shortcomings and misdemeanors. Such a system presents too strong a temptation to dishonesty. The fact that it is difficult, if not impossible, for pupils to make a correct comparative estimate of their conduct, affords a pretext for indifference and a cover for falsehood; and the truthful and conscientious pupil is rewarded by a lower record than his less scrupulous mates. We doubt whether such a system can be safely used by one teacher in a hundred. A glance at the other conditions will show that they are met by very few schools. The truth is there are but few teachers that can safely adopt the self-reporting system. Its use by an entire corps of teachers should not be attempted, since the majority will fail to make it a means of truth culture.

VOCAL MUSIC IN COMMON SCHOOLS.

A country teacher writes us urging that more attention should be given to vocal music in our sub-district schools. He finds by experience that singing animates and cheers his pupils, and is useful in promoting study and good order. It affords teacher and pupils a pleasant and profitable diversion from the ordinary routine of lesson-hearing, and thus adds to the attractiveness of the school. We indorse these views with the expression of a hope that the day is not far distant when singing will be regarded as indispensable a school exercise as reading. A daily exercise in vocal music not only has important physical, intellectual, and moral advantages, but experience has demonstrated that a few minutes daily devoted to it are more than made good by the increased progress of the school in other branches. But we insist that the singing in schools should have *music* in it. Too much of what is called school singing is *measured noise minus melody*. Not many years since we visited a primary school under the supervision of a leading educator. After we had listened to an exercise in reading, he called for singing. The school responded with a will, each child putting in his best yells. To our surprise, when the excruciating discord ended, he called for another piece! Children should sing lively but sweetly. But read what Prof. Mason says on this point.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—— We would remind all who wish to see the National Teacher have a large circulation, that this result depends much on voluntary effort. How many of our readers will try to secure a few subscribers this month?

—— W. E. Sheldon has been compelled by ill health to resign his position in the schools of Waltham, Mass. This is the second time in five years, that he has thus been obliged to leave the school-room.——The salary of Supt. W. E. Crosby, Davenport, Iowa, has been raised to $2,500.

—— A "Country Teacher" wishes to know whether pupils should be allowed "to spit on the floor of the school-room"; and also whether it is injurious to children not to spit. We answer that teachers in *civilized* communities where there is a sense of common decency, should not tolerate the disgusting practice of spitting on the floor. It may sometimes be necessary for children to spit, but the school-room is not the proper place for all necessary acts of pupils.

Teachers for Examiners.—The teachers of the public schools of Cumminsville, O., recently petitioned the school board to fill a vacancy in the local board of examiners by appointing some competent person who is now or has been a practical teacher. They asked this not only as a matter of justice to the profession, but because teachers can best examine teachers.——The teachers of Butler county, at a late meeting in Hamilton, voted that "teachers should have the exclusive right to examine teachers, and they owe it to themselves and to the community faithfully to perform this duty."

—— Supt. John Hancock, of Cincinnati, recently delivered a lecture before the Young Men's Christian Association of that city on "The Common Man." He boldly advocated compulsory education, and was heartily applauded by a large audience. In this connection, we may state that a bill to compel school attendance has been introduced into the General Assembly of Ohio. Children between the ages of seven and fourteen years are required to be sent to school at least twelve consecutive weeks each year, and parents who willfully violate this provision (with exceptions specified) are subject to a fine of $10 to $50 or to imprisonment for three to twenty days, or both. Such a statute would not be a great help to widows whose sons have broken through their control. The law should reach and care for the absentees as well as punish their parents.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE WESTERN STATES.

—— The State Teachers' Associations of Indiana, Illinois, Missouri, and Kansas held their annual meetings Dec. 27, 28, and 29. A want of space this month compels us to postpone a brief account of the proceedings. We have received a good report of the Kansas meeting.

Missouri.—The school work in this State is being vigorously pushed forward, and in a few of the larger cities has been made fruitful of the highest results. Outside of the cities, however, the school facilities are generally poor, and the progress slow and difficult. The old feeling of opposition to popular education on a common basis is very prevalent, constituting a serious obstacle in the way of educational advance-

ment; and, until this is overcome by the more democratic spirit of the times, a healthy and uniform educational growth can not be expected. The burden of the work is borne almost wholly by the representative few, and though among these are found some of the ablest and most zealous educators in the land, their number is inadequate to the requirements of the work. In many of the counties the school funds have for years been rendered unavailable through the dishonesty and mismanagement of school officers, in consequence of which very limited provision has been made for public schools; but it is to be hoped that the present very crude and ineffective law will be so amended as to guard against this misfortune in the future. The total school population of the State is about 680,000, and the number of children in the schools is less than 260,000. According to the last census the number of children of school age never registered is 324,299, more probably by 25,000 than are unregistered in any other State of the Union. No better schools can be found in the West than those of St. Louis. The high school and normal school, in particular, are very ably conducted, and have attained a high degree of excellence. Supt. W. T. Harris, in so ably carrying on thus far the great work of his administration, has certainly well earned his enviable reputation as an educator. The schools of St. Joseph, Kansas City, Sedalia, Boonville, Jefferson City, Chillicothe, Macon, and of a few other larger towns, are also well conducted and liberally sustained. The State University, located at Columbia, and the North Missouri Normal School, located at Kirksville, are both highly prosperous, and give promise of bountiful results in the future. The University has an attendance this year of about 225. A normal department, which constitutes a very attractive feature of the institution, is in successful operation. In connection with this department is a model school in which each normal student is required to test, practically, the theories he has learned during his course of study. The North Missouri Normal School was established three years ago, and is now a permanent, self-sustaining institution. The attendance last year was about 450, and this year will doubtless exceed 500. The Legislature has made provision for the establishment of another normal school at Sedalia, which will be opened next fall, and as soon as practicable an elegant and commodious building will be provided. Considering the many disadvantages under which the State is laboring, her educational position is highly commendable, and her prospects very promising.

O. G. W.

CALIFORNIA.—We have an admirable system of common schools, superior in many respects to that of many more venerable States of the Union. Its development, notwithstanding the pecuniary embarrassments and difficulties attending its institution, has kept pace with the rapid growth of our young and progressive Commonwealth in other elements of prosperity and power, ... and, in point of educational facilities, California will not suffer by comparison with older and, in some respects, more favored sections of the country. State uniformity of text-books has recently been established. The changes required in effecting this resulted in some friction, as might have been anticipated; but reformation was needed, and the action of the State Board, dictated by a high sense of official duty and a judicious regard for the true interests of the public schools, meets very generally the popular indorsement. Several important and valuable amendments to the school law were enacted at the last session of the Legislature. The ad-valorem tax for school purposes on one hundred dollars value of taxable property throughout the State, was raised from eight to ten cents. Our impoverished mining counties are especially benefited by this law, since the wealth of the entire State bears the burden of the tax. Another and excellent amendment provides, that in districts having $75,000 worth of taxable property, and a number of children, twenty-five or more, between the years of five and fifteen, the board of supervisors of each county shall levy a special tax upon the

property of such school districts for an amount, which, together with the state and county money to be raised, shall be sufficient to maintain the school or schools of the district eight months during the year. Within the past few years an impetus has been given to educational affairs throughout the State. Witness the establishment of the State University, the inauguration of the normal school structure at San Jose, the increase of school revenue, and the general interest manifested in county and state institutes. Legislation has been in the right direction, and the policy and action of the department of education have resulted in such reforms and advance movements as have already vindicated their wisdom. W. H. H.

NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

WEST VIRGINIA.—We close an advanced copy of the seventh annual report of the State Superintendent of Free Schools profoundly impressed with the educational progress made by this young State in seven years. When the present system was established, the State was well-nigh destitute of school-houses, teachers, and school funds, and nearly every district was pervaded by a strong opposition to free schools. The system had to be built up from the foundation, and, in most cases, the foundation had to be laid. The seventh year reports 2,113 school-houses, an increase of 490 since last year, and the total value of school property is estimated at $1,500,000. The amount expended in the year for school property was about $250,000, and for current school expenses $500,000. The whole number of youth in the State between the ages of six and twenty-one reported, is 162,432; the number of pupils enrolled in the schools, 87,330—an increase of over 14,000 since the last report; and the average daily attendance, 55,083—an increase of 15,720. The number of teachers now employed is over 2,500. The State has established three normal schools, and the one at Marshall College has graduated its first class. Twenty-three teachers' institutes were held in 1870 under the auspices of the State School Department, and teachers' associations and meetings were held in several counties. These facts are certainly full of encouragement and promise. But the report itself is evidence of the great change to which we have referred. It breathes the very spirit of assured success. The report proper fills forty pages in which twenty-six topics, nearly all relating to the further improvement of the system, are briefly and forcibly discussed. Considerable space is devoted to the abuses in local administration, which retard the progress of the system. The assistance rendered by the Peabody Fund, amounting to nearly $18,000, is gratefully acknowledged. Of this sum, $1,000 were appropriated to the institute work, $1,500 to the normal schools, and the balance to graded schools in different places. An appropriation was also made by Dr. Sears, to enable the teachers of the State to secure the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY at half price. But one must read the brief reports of the county superintendents to get a just view of the work accomplished, and especially of the obstacles which have opposed progress. We have only space to congratulate Supt. Williams on the success of his brief administration. In less than one year he has infused a life and energy into the system, which will bear fruit for years to come. We trust that his successor, Hon. C. S. Lewis, may carry forward the good work with like devotion and success.

OHIO.—A bill codifying the school laws of the State, general and special, has been introduced into the House by Mr. Sayler, chairman of the school committee of that body. It was drafted by School-Commissioner Henkle, which is an assurance that it has been done with care, and extra copies for distribution to prominent educators and school officers for examination and suggestion, will be printed. We must defer a summary of the provisions of this bill until next month, when we shall be in posses-

sion of a printed copy. We can state, in general terms, that the bill makes few changes in our present systems (for we have several) in addition to those demanded for their unification. School districts are divided into five classes—cities of the first class, other cities, towns, villages, and townships—and a special organization for each is provided. The present complicated organization in townships is simplified. There is great need of a complete unification and simplification of the school laws of the State, and it is earnestly hoped that the present General Assembly may have the honor of such a measure of school progress.——A bill has passed the Senate reducing the fee required of female applicants for certificates, from fifty to thirty-five cents, and Mr. Wade, chairman of the school committee of the Senate, has introduced a bill to abolish the fee altogether. We suppose that Mr. Wade is not aware of the fact that this fee is the source of the teachers' institute fund, which, for five years past, has contributed more than aught else to school activity and progress in Ohio. When the State is ready to give the institute system adequate pecuniary support, this examination fee can be wisely abolished, and not before. We hope the General Assembly may strengthen rather than cripple this important agency for the improvement of our schools.

—— The announcement recently made by the daily papers, that there is an unrepealed law creating the office of county superintendent of schools in Ohio, has created a good degree of interest. The facts are these: An act providing for the appointment of county school superintendents in twenty-five counties named, was passed Feb. 8, 1847. An act extending the provisions of this law to all the counties in the State, was passed Feb. 24, 1848. The original act of Feb. 8, 1847, was repealed by the general school law of 1853, but the extending act of Feb. 24, 1848, has never been repealed. It is claimed that the repeal of the original act of 1847 did not render the extending act of 1848 void, but that the latter act is still in force. This may be so, but we should not care to invest much in the law of 1848.

—— The reports made to the State School Commissioner for the school year ending August 31st, 1870, show that teachers' institutes were held in 69 of the 88 counties of the State. The whole number of members in attendance upon the institutes held, including several private enterprises, was 6,340. Making due allowance for the enrollment of persons not engaged in teaching, these figures indicate that about one-third of the teachers of the State received institute instruction. This fact shows that the institute system is exerting a very wide and, we may add, salutary influence. The total cost of the county institutes was about $13,000, of which $9,972 was received from the institute fund; $745 from county commissioners; and the balance from membership fees and other sources. Twelve institutes were not officially reported as the law requires. The total receipts from examination fees were $13,460.

Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association.—The meeting of this Association in Akron, Saturday, Jan. 16th, is reported to be the best yet held—a fact largely due to the interest and hospitality of the teachers and citizens of the city. About two hundred persons, including citizens, were present, all of whom partook of a fine dinner, served in the building at the noon recess. The exercises were very interesting and instructive. Prof. A. Schuyler, of Baldwin University, read an able paper on "Moral Instruction"; Mrs. Harvey, of Akron, conducted an excellent class drill in reading; Prof. Stewart, of Cleveland, illustrated his method of teaching vocal music in the public schools; Mrs. Stone, of the Akron High School, conducted a class exercise in English grammar, which was highly commended, and, in the afternoon, she read an essay criticising a suggestive course in English literature, adopted by the Association at its last meeting. Her chief criticism was the prominence given in the course to works of romance. The essay elicited a spirited and interesting discussion

which consumed the greater part of the afternoon session. Supt. Harvey, of Painesville, was re-elected president for the ensuing year, and Supt. Findley, of Akron vice-president. The next meeting is to be held in Cleveland in March.

NORTHWESTERN OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This Association held its third meeting in Toledo, Saturday, Feb. 11th, with a good attendance. The opening address by the president, Supt. Furness, of Tiffin, briefly discussed several topics of practical value, which were referred to committees for future consideration. He recommended the holding of a "Graded-School Institute", similar to the one held in Cleveland last year. The remainder of the morning session was devoted to brief exercises by classes from the city schools. These illustrated the instruction of the schools in reading, map-drawing, drawing, writing, vocal music, arithmetic, language-lessons, object-lessons, German, and French—all of which gave great satisfaction. The exercises in drawing were publicly commended by Supt. Stevenson, of Norwalk. The afternoon session was opened with an interesting address by Mr. Seagrave, of the Toledo High School, on "Make the School-Room Pleasant." This was followed by a free discussion of several topics. The next meeting is to be held in Fremont.

BOOK NOTICES.

—— WE regret that we are able to make so little progress in the examination of the school and miscellaneous books that crowd our table. Over thirty works are waiting for a "notice."

THE AMERICAN NATURALIST: a Popular Illustrated Magazine of Natural History. Published by the Peabody Academy of Science, Salem, Mass.

Science made easy is generally made absurd, and we have little patience with the somewhat popular belief that even small boys may be profitably dosed with science. But there are departments of Natural History, which can be treated popularly and yet scientifically. We have never had in our country a magazine giving *accurate* information on subjects of natural history and, at the same time, bringing the information within the range of all, until the appearance of the *American Naturalist*. The editors are themselves accomplished naturalists, and devote their whole time to the study of nature. Hence their statements are entitled to entire confidence. That the magazine is popular, and constitutes a charm for the whole family circle, we know from personal observation. Not only is definite knowledge gained from it, but habits of careful observation are formed. The young folks bring in their queer bugs and butterflies, and if they can not find out all about them and their habits in the magazine, they send the specimens confidently to the editors, and then wait and watch, oh, how eagerly, for the next number. The same with flowers or birds or shells. It matters little what enkindles thought and enthusiasm in the young mind. Once kindled they give light and power through the whole life. We can not too earnestly urge upon our friends to subscribe for the *Naturalist*, and, having read the numbers, to bind and preserve them for future reference. They are as equally interesting and profitable for the "old folks" as for the boys and girls. E. B. A.

A FOURTEEN WEEKS' COURSE IN POPULAR GEOLOGY. By J. DORMAN STEELE, A.M., Ph.D. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

Should, in our day of division of labor and study, a biblical student undertake to write commentaries on all the books of the Bible, he would show his complete unfitness for his work. The same principle applies to Mr. Steele in his "Fourteen Weeks'" series. They already comprise text-books on Chemistry, Natural Philosophy, Astron-

omy, and Geology. One on Physiology is in preparation, and how many more are planned we can not even conjecture. Coleridge says that, if a man would hope to do good work in any department of intellectual labor, "he must have the courage to remain ignorant of many things." The very idea that Mr. Steele is, at the same time, a chemist, a natural philosopher, an astronomer, a geologist, and a physiologist, is in the highest degree absurd, and the attempt to realize so absurd an idea in authorship is lamentable. The Geology before us follows very closely the classifications of Prof. Dana, but lacks that author's accuracy of statement. It is rhetorical in the highest degree. The "scenic descriptions" are marvelous achievements in rhetoric. The gorges are the "weirdest", the light is "wan and dubious", and the horror has "a vague and shadowy hue." So far as our observations go, none are so quick to detect this kind of extravagance as the older boys and girls in our high schools, and to see through the trick. The fundamental idea of the work is to leave out geological facts to a large extent, and make up the deficiency by rhetoric, and thus cause a little science to go a great way.

OHIO GEOLOGICAL SURVEY. Printed by Order of the General Assembly, 1870.

The first report of the Geological Survey of Ohio is a neat volume of 164 pages. It is called a "report of progress," and covers only the first year's operations. The portion written by Dr. Newberry, Chief Geologist, is not so much a report of progress as a report preliminary to progress. It is largely a statement of what was known by Dr. Newberry independent of the survey. The reports of Professors Andrews and Orton are devoted largely to the actual surveys made, and each is not only a report of progress, but a valuable contribution to our knowledge of the geology of the sections surveyed. The report of Prof. Andrews indicates a large amount of field work of a thoroughly scientific character. He reports *what has been found*, and not what ought to exist to satisfy theories. He depends on observation, instead of imagination, for his facts. Prof. Orton's method is likewise scientific and thorough. The volume contains a fine geological map of the State, and a large chart showing the lower coal measures of a portion of Prof. Andrews's district.

MITCHELL'S NEW OUTLINE MAPS. Large Series. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

The publishers have sent us the map of North America, the first ready, as a specimen of this new series of outline maps. Its size is 55 by 63 inches, and it is neatly and durably mounted on canvas and roller. It is both a physical and a political map,—the physical features are represented by light and delicate colors, and the political divisions by boundary lines clearly and beautifully traced in bright colors. The only defect we notice is the shading employed to mark the boundaries between plains and plateaus. At first glance, these shadings indicate low mountain chains. This fine map justifies the belief that the series, when completed, will have no superior in beauty, accuracy, and cheapness.

MANUAL OF THE BOTANY OF THE UNITED STATES, including Virginia, Kentucky, and all East of the Mississippi. By ASA GRAY, Fisher Professor of Natural History Harvard University. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

This work, designed for the use of students and practical botanists, is a compendious flora of the cooler-temperate section of the United States. The fourth revised edition contains nearly sixty pages of Garden Botany, introducing the student to a knowledge of the common cultivated plants and an addenda describing plants recently discovered and those accidentally omitted in the first editions. A valuable feature is the treatment of the mosses and liverworts by Wm. S. Sullivant, Columbus, O., who is the highest authority in this branch of Botany. Twenty-two full-page plates,

drawn by Mr. Sullivant, illustrate the genera of the grasses, ferns, mosses, etc. It is not necessary to add that this volume of over eight hundred pages is one of Prof. Gray's unsurpassed series of botanical text-books.

THE ELEMENTS OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. By SIDNEY A. NORTON, A.M. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

We have examined this work with much pleasure and satisfaction. It is neither a rehash of old theories and facts, nor a pretentious and showy presentation of what is new. It is rather a judicious selection of what is elementary and valuable in the science, whether old or new. This is the crowning merit of the work. It is a *text book*, and the pupil that masters it will know something of elementary physics. In method and illustration the author has been equally successful. The topics are logically arranged, and each is treated both from a scientific and an educational standpoint. We have examined no other text-book on Natural Philosophy, which, in matter, method, illustration, accuracy, and clearness, so fully meets our approval or is so worthy of commendation.

THE AMERICAN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION. Published Quarterly. Hartford, Conn. Henry Barnard. Price, $4 a year.

Dr. Barnard has resumed the publication of this educational quarterly, suspended during his service as National Comissioner of Education. His intention is to complete his survey of the history and condition of education in different countries. The January number is largely devoted to education in Great Britain.

THE WISCONSIN JOURNAL OF EDUCATION, revived in January, is one of the neatest and most promising of the state journals. It is edited by Hon. Samuel Fallows, State Superintendent, and Rev. J. B. Pradt, the able editor of the former journal. Price, $1.50 a year.

THE MISSISSIPPI EDUCATIONAL JOURNAL makes a bold beginning, and is worthy of a long life. The first number (February) contains fifty-four pages. It is edited and published by H. T. Fisher, Jackson, Miss. Price, $2 a year.

GOOD HEALTH is a neat and instructive journal of physical and mental culture, published monthly by Alexander Moore, Boston, Mass. Its aim is the improvement of human health and the lengthening of human life. Price, $2 a year.

MISS YOUMAN'S FIRST BOOK IN BOTANY is par excellence *the* book to introduce children to this delightful science. Its method of teaching the subject is admirable.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

HUXLEY'S LAY SERMONS, ADDRESSES, AND REVIEWS. D. Appleton & Co., New York.

COOLEY'S CHEMISTRY, and COOLEY'S NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. Charles Scribner & Co. New York.

STRENGTH AND SKILL. Illustrated Library of Wonders.
THE HUMAN BODY. " " "
INTELLIGENCE OF ANIMALS. " " "
WONDERS OF HEAT. " " "
— Charles Scribner & Co.. New York.

DILL'S MORAL EXERCISES IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Robert Clarke & Co., Cincinnati, O.

OHIO RAILWAY REPORT. Vol. I. Laws and Charters. By George B. Wright, Commissioner.

HART'S FIRST LESSONS IN COMPOSITION. Eldredge & Brother, Philadelphia.

THE

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E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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THOUGHTS ON PRIMARY INSTRUCTION.—III.

BY DELIA A. LATHROP.

Another principle which should control us in our educational work, may be generally stated thus: "*First ideas, second their proper expression—cultivate language.*" In any school, a system in which the teacher does all the talking, is a questionable one; in a primary school, it must lead to absolute failure. The teacher's duty is by illustration, experiment, and skillful questioning to lead the child to a clear apprehension of the "point" to be taught, and, after he has the idea, to encourage him by question and suggestion in its expression. Thus his vocabulary is constantly being increased, and he learns the proper use of language as rapidly as he has ideas whose expression he desires. By learning words in connection with the ideas represented by them, every one is of practical value to him. He has no unused and unusable mere lumber of words in his way. They are given him as so many keys, which he, in the manner of giving, is made competent to use for the unlocking of the great treasure-houses of knowledge. By such a process of education a child's knowledge of language will have progressed very far before he has seen a grammar.

Prof. S. S. Greene, of Brown University, said before the American Institute of Instruction, several years ago: "It will be fruitless to try to do anything [about teaching language] unless the teacher proceed upon the principle that the thought comes first.

Increase the child's demand for language, by giving him new ideas, and you do much to encourage the proper use of language. Let language always be taught as a means of expressing thought." The principle of making ideas the basis of the study of language is hardly of modern discovery, however much we may pride ourselves upon so-called "modern methods" in language. Plutarch, speaking of learning the Roman language, says of himself: "That which happened to me may seem strange, though it be true. It was not so much by the knowledge of *words* that I came to an understanding of *things*, as by an *experience of things*, I was enabled to *follow the meaning of words*." This is unquestionably the "natural order." Lead the child to feel the necessity for words to express his *ideas*, and the effort to find them will fix them in memory when found. I give an incident to illustrate: A few days since a "form lesson" was being given in one of our "practising schools." The children had already learned to distinguish and describe a prism, and had called those with squares for bases square prisms. The lesson to-day was upon a square pyramid, a form the class had never before seen, and so had no idea of the name. Having been led to observe and describe it as having a square base and equal triangular sides meeting in a point opposite the base, the children were asked to give it a name. For some time no one ventured to suggest one; at last a thoughtful boy raised his hand. He had found an expression for his idea. What would he call it? "A *triangular-sided, pointed*, square prism!" He had crystallized his thought into language, and I submit to you, was it not the very best his vocabulary afforded? When shown that it could not be called a prism at all, he saw the necessity for a new term, and when the proper one was given, his satisfaction seemed complete. No one supposes that boy will ever forget the word *pyramid*. He was too pleased to get it to esteem it lightly when learned.

Another incident illustrates how even children come to put *ideas* before *words*: The class was the lowest in the primary department, and the teacher had called the attention of the children to the word "girl." Most of the class, from what had been said, were confident they knew the word, and were waiting impatiently for permission to express their opinions. But one little girl was still in doubt. A small boy, at her side, annoyed by her dullness, and in haste to proceed, said sharply to the teacher: "Why don't you ask Fannie what *she is*, and then she'll know the word." Dear, anxious teacher, did not this child in his child-

ishness hint to us how we may break through the blank wall of childhood's seeming stupidity, and let the inflooding sunlight of intelligence scatter the thick darkness?

Words without thoughts are the most empty of all empty things; and thoughts without words for their proper expression are almost useless things. Persons with a comparatively limited range of ideas, who have readiness in the use of language to express those they do have fluently, clearly, and concisely, can accomplish more both for themselves and the world than can those whose knowledge is vastly superior, but who lack this ability to *tell* what they know. Facility in the use of language is largely a matter of culture, and that too in early life. Children who are accustomed to talking with and listening to persons that talk fluently and correctly, are easy and correct talkers. The *habit* of language is an expression much more true to fact than the "gift of language."

The application of this principle—"first ideas, then their expression"—to our next-to senseless practice of school-composition-writing and essay-making, will show us how to correct our faults. Happily many teachers are already making sure that their pupils have some ideas to express before imperatively demanding an expression of ideas on penalty of suspension from school, or some other punishment quite as dreadful. Who wonders that "Summer", "Winter", "Life", "Death", "Hope" and "Virtue" have been so indifferently discussed in these *original* productions! Strange that the oft-repeated, "I don't know anything to say about it", has not long before this suggested to us all the propriety of giving our pupils something "to say about it." Children are not naturally disinclined either to talk or to write about that in which they are interested, and concerning which they are informed. To test this, let some subject of interest be mentioned in school with which they are familiar, and note the eagerness of each to tell all he knows. It certainly seems quite unnecessary systematically to compel children to attain to the habit of writing, when they have nothing to communicate. We have quite enough of such "talent" in the present generation (Are the schoolmasters responsible?)—and it will be just as well to let this "school of writers" come to a perpetual end.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—No. III.

BY GEORGE S. ORMSBY.

It was suggested in my last article that one prominent reason why English grammarians differ so widely in their statements, is the fact that English grammar is written too much in the interest of an inflected language.

It is proper to remark here, that form in English is not entirely wanting. There are forms for case, forms for person, number, mode, tense, etc. These are to be regarded, but they are not sufficiently prominent in the English language to entitle them to the position of corner-stones in the structure of English grammar. The English language is not so much a language of form as a language of utility. To this our attention will be directed hereafter. We have now to do with the difficulty in the way of the learner.

Some excellent articles on this subject have appeared in the *Massachusetts Teacher*. The writer says that there are two sources of difficulty: 1. "A want of clearness and accuracy in definition"; 2. "A misconception of the true province of grammatical syntax."

The first source of difficulty mentioned is evidently correct; but it should be stated in what this want of clearness and accuracy consists. The pupil must know not only that something is wrong, but he must know the very thing that is wrong and also the very thing that is right. In his general discussion of the subject, the writer seems to have fallen into the same error as the grammarians. He speaks of "case forms" and "case relations." Now, before we can know what is meant by the terms "case forms" and "case relations", we must know what case is. If case is a form, it is not a relation; if it is a relation, it is not a form; and if such a distinction is to be made, let the pupil know definitely what is meant by it. To direct him to distinguish between case forms and case relations, without first defining case, or pointing out this distinction, removes no difficulty from his mind. Nor will it do in grammatical syntax to separate the form from the thought, and instruct the pupil that his work is the proper combination of forms.

If there are but two case forms, and, in grammatical syntax, the thought is to be divorced from the form, what direction shall be given him who is required to construct a sentence containing

three different cases, as in the following: *John* told *William* to strike *Samuel's* brother? Here we have three cases. *John* is in the nominative, *William* is in the objective, and *Samuel's* in the possessive. The first and second have a similar form. Now write each of these words on a separate piece of paper, and require the pupil so to arrange them as to produce the above sentence, giving him no thought to guide him but simply the form; he can not make the arrangement. Give me the noun John and the verb strikes, and I can form but one sentence. Add to these another noun William, and I can not arrange them into the sentence you desire, unless you give me the thought.

In an inflected language, where the form indicates the thought, the case is different. There the syntax may be accurate, although the thought is unknown. Take the following simple, Latin sentence: *Arma fecit Vulcanus.* Any pupil, familiar with the declension of the Latin noun and with the conjugation of the Latin verb, would put these words into a proper sentence, and parse the words correctly, though he know not the meaning of one of them. Take the three words, *Cæsar*, *Pompey*, and *conquered.* The proper syntax of these words depends upon the thought. But in the following three, viz., *Cæsar*, *Pompeium*, and *vicit*, the syntax is possible without the thought. Here we see most clearly a marked difference between an inflected and an uninflected language. In the latter, thought is the ruling element,—the essential, underlying principle.

It should be remarked that the difficulty appertaining to the study of this science, is *not* in the nature of the subject itself. Little children, properly taught, learn how to use the English language correctly. They can be taught the classification and the so-called properties of words;—when to use and when not to use this form or that. Children know that the word *apple* and the word *John* are used as names. When asked for the name of the fruit, they will answer "apple"; when asked for the name of the boy, they will answer "John." They know from experience and observation that the apple is sweet, and that John is good. They can understand that the words *sweet* and *good* are used to indicate the qualities of the respective objects to which these qualities belong. They can learn also that words used as names are called nouns, and that words used to indicate qualities of objects are called adjectives.

With almost equal ease all the parts of speech may be learned, and all the more common uses of words. There are, of course,

difficult constructions, about which the most learned differ. Such are not within the range of the child's capacity. I refer not to such, but rather to the more general principles of the science in plain construction.

Where, then, is the difficulty? I answer that it is in forms of expression. There is a want of clearness and accuracy of statement, not only in definitions, but in rules also, in forms of parsing and in incidental remarks. A general definition may be correct; a particular one under it incorrect. An explanatory remark, or a proposed form of parsing, may render indefinite the truth affirmed in the definition.

These erroneous forms of expression envelop the truth in a mist, so that it can not be discerned except by one who possesses an intellectual vision more acute than is found in ordinary minds. Indeed, English grammar, as presented, can not be learned except by those who can see the truth outside of and beyond the form of expression intended to represent it. A few illustrations will indicate the truth of what is here affirmed:

Person is thus defined: "Person is the distinction of nouns in their relation to the speaker." "The first person is the speaker." Now both of these statements can not be true. If the first is true, the second is false; if the second is true, the first is false; and the two combined fail to teach the truth. The general definition makes grammatical person a distinction; the particular one makes it an object that can speak—a man!

What is case? "Case is the *relation* of nouns and pronouns to other words." "The nominative case is the *use* of a noun or pronoun, etc." "The case absolute is the *use* of a *noun independent*, etc." Can case be a *relation* and at the same time a *use?* Can case be the *relation* of nouns to other words when the noun is independent of other words; that is, has no *relation to them?*

What is tense? "Tense denotes *time.*" "The past tense denotes *what took place.*" These two definitions harmonize beautifully!—and the pupil would understand the latter, had he not been previously taught that the *verb* expresses what "took place." Since the so-called active verbs are the only ones which express action, we are to conclude that neuter verbs do not have tense, for they do not express what took place.

What is a sentence? "A sentence is an assertion of something respecting an object." "The sentence is made up of three elements: 1st. The object of which we speak, called the subject; 2d. That which we assert of it, called the predicate; 3d. The

assertion itself, called the copula." Now a sentence is either a thought, a collection of words which express a thought, or it is the object and attributes about which we think. If it is a thought, ideas are its elements; if it is a collection of words, words are its elements; if it is the object and attributes about which we think, then such object and attributes constitute its elements. Now the author evidently means to affirm that the collection of words which represents the thought, is the sentence. If this is so, then words only are elements. But he says that "the object of which we speak"—not the word—is one of these three elements; that is, if I say the tree grows, the *object* tree, and not the *word* tree, is an element of the sentence.

These few examples, selected from many of like character, are taken from some of our best and most popular authors on this subject. They have been selected for the single purpose of showing that too many of the fundamental truths appertaining to English grammar can not be seen in the form of expression designed to represent them.

IS J. DORMAN STEELE RIGHT?

BY W. D. HENKLE, COLUMBUS, O.

J. Dorman Steele, on page 18 of his "*Fourteen Weeks in Astronomy*," says that "He [Pythagoras] held that the sun is the centre of the solar system, and that the planets revolve about it in circular orbits; that the earth revolves daily on its axis, and yearly around the sun; etc."

I feel sure that Mr. Steele would not knowingly assist in perpetuating an historical error. Whether the statement made by him contains an inaccuracy can better be judged after reading the following quotations:

The last edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, vol. iv, p. 788, says:

"He [Pythagoras] taught publicly that the earth is placed at the centre of the universe; but among his chosen disciples he propagated the doctrine that the sun occupies the centre of the planetary world, and that the earth is a planet circulating about the sun. This system, which still retains his name, being called the old or Pythagorean system of the universe, is that which was revived by Copernicus." * * * "Philolaus of Crotona, a disciple of Pythagoras, embraced the doctrine of his master with regard to the revolution of the earth about the sun."

Cudworth, in his "*Intellectual System*", sec. xi, chap. i, p. 92, vol. I, Birch's edition, gives a quotation in Greek from Aristotle's *De Cœlo*, lib. ii, c. xiii, which he calls Aristotle's expression of the Pythagoric opinion. The literal rendering of this Greek quotation, preserving the order of the Greek, is, "the earth one of the stars being in a circle borne around the middle night and the day (to) make." Cudworth's rendering is, "That the earth, as one of the stars (that is, a planet), being carried round about the middle or centre (which is fire or the sun), did in the meantime by its circumgyration upon its own axis make day and night."

From this it is plain that Cudworth understood the doctrine of Pythagoras to be the same as that stated in the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. It would be easy to quote numerous works in which a similar statement is made. I shall, however, add but one more made by Whewell in his "*History of the Inductive Sciences*", vol I, p. 259: "The most ancient of the Greek philosophers to whom the ancients ascribe the heliocentric doctrine, is Pythagoras; but Diogenes Laertius makes Philolaus, one of the followers of Pythagoras, the first author of this doctrine." All that I can find in Diogenes Laertius is in Tom. II, Lib. VII, Chap. VII, III. § 85 p. 127, Leipsic edition, under the subject Philolaus. I translate literally and in order: "And the earth moves in a circle, first to say; but some, Hicetas the Syracusan say." In idiomatic English: "And Philolaus was the first to say that the Earth move in a circle; but some say that Hicetas the Syracusan was the first to say this."

Now let us examine the counter evidence. Whewell in the third edition of his work, in the additions, p. 507, vol. I, says:

"It is not in any degree probable that Pythagoras taught that the Earth revolves round the Sun, or that it rotates on its own axis. Nor did Plato hold either of these motions of the Earth. They got so far as to believe in the Spherical Form of the Earth; and this was apparently such an effort that the human mind made a pause before going any further," * * * "Some of the expressions which have been understood as describing a system in which the Sun is the *centre of motion*, do really imply merely the Sun is the *middle term* of the series of heavenly bodies which revolve round the Earth; the series being Moon, Mercury, Venus, Sun, Mars, Jupiter, Saturn. This is the case, for instance, in a passage of Cicero's *Vision of Scipio*, which has been supposed to imply (as I have stated in the History) that Mercury and Venus revolve about the Sun."

The following extract from the "Vision of Scipio" contains no doubt, the passage referred to by Whewell:

"Which, while I was too eagerly gazing on, Africanus said: 'How long will your attention be fixed upon the earth? Do you not see into what temples you have entered? All things are connected by nine circles, or rather spheres

one of which (which is the outermost) is heaven, and comprehends all the rest, [inhabited by] that all-powerful God, who bounds and controls the others; and in this sphere reside the original principles of those endless revolutions which the planets perform. Within this are contained seven other spheres, that turn round backward, that is, in a contrary direction to that of the heaven. Of these that planet which on earth you call Saturn, occupies one sphere. That shining body which you see next is called Jupiter, and is friendly and salutary to mankind. Next the lucid one, terrible to the earth, which you call Mars. The Sun holds the next place, almost under the middle region; he is the chief, the leader, and the director of the other luminaries; he is the soul and guide of the world, and of such immense bulk, that he illuminates and fills all other objects with his light. He is followed by the orbit of Venus, and that of Mercury, as attendants; and the Moon rolls in the lowest sphere, enlightened by the rays of the Sun. Below this there is nothing but what is mortal and transitory, excepting these souls which are given to the human race by the goodness of the gods. Whatever lies above the Moon is eternal. For the Earth, which is the ninth sphere, and is placed in the centre of the whole system, is immovable, and below all the rest; and all bodies, by their natural gravitation tend toward it.' "

Whewell says on pp. 506–7:

"In describing the Prelude to the Epoch of Copernicus, I have spoken of Philolaus, one of the followers of Pythagoras, who lived at the time of Socrates, as having held the doctrine that the earth revolves about the sun. This has been a current opinion;—so current, indeed, that the Abbé Bouillaud, or Bullialdus, as we more commonly call him, gave the title of *Philolaus* to the defence of Copernicus, which he published in 1639; and Chiaramonti, an Aristotelian, published his answer under the title of *Antiphilolaus*. In 1645 Bullialdus published his *Astronomia Philolaica*, which was another exposition of the heliocentric doctrine."

"Yet, notwithstanding this general belief, it appears to be tolerably certain that Philolaus did not hold the doctrine of the earth's motion round the sun. (M. H Martin, *Etudes sur le Timée*, 1841, Note xxxvii, Lect. i.; and Bœckh, *De Vera Indole Astronomiæ Philolaicæ*, 1810.) In the system of Philolaus the earth revolved about *the central fire;* but this central fire was not the sun. The sun, along with the moon and planets, revolved in circles external to the earth. The earth had the *Antichthon* or *Counter-Earth* between it and the centre; and revolving round this centre in one day, the Antichthon, being always between it and the centre, was, during a portion of the revolution, interposed between the Earth and the Sun, and thus made night; while the Sun, by his proper motion, produced the changes of the year."

For a confirmation of what has just been quoted from Whewell, see *Anthon's Classical Dictionary*, p. 1041:

"Philolaus treated the doctrine of nature with great subtlety, but, at the same time, with great obscurity; referring everything that exists to mathematical principles. He taught that the world is one whole, which has a fiery centre, about which the ten celestial spheres revolve, heaven, the *sun*, the planets, the earth, and the moon."

Whewell further says:

"But though the doctrine of the diurnal rotation and annual revolution of the earth is not the doctrine of Pythagoras, or of Philolaus, or Plato, it was nevertheless held by some of the philosophers of antiquity. The testimony of Archimedes that this doctrine was held by his contemporary Aristarchus of Samos, is unquestionable; and there is no reason to doubt Plutarch's assertion that Seleucus further enforced it."

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

SECONDARY SERIES.—NO. I.

BY WM. F. PHELPS.

Having presented in previous numbers of this journal a series of brief sketches of lessons, suited to the primary classes of the district schools, I now propose a similar series for the intermediate or secondary grade in these schools. As a preliminary step, I again call the attention of the teachers in the rural districts *to the necessity of a proper classification*, as discussed in the MONTHLY in the year 1868. It can not, perhaps, be too often repeated that a reform in this particular is fundamental, and *a condition precedent to the successful introduction of right methods of instruction, or of anything like a well-defined course of study.*

By a judicious and faithful application of the plans heretofore suggested for the primary classes, the children have been conducted through the most difficult steps in the process of learning to read. They have a fair command of words as far as to the second reader; they have a good store of simple ideas; they are familiar with the earlier steps in number, so far as to be able to add and subtract, and possibly to multiply and divide with numbers less than ten. They can write legibly such words as they can read and spell. Their observing powers have been reasonably well aroused to activity, and, under wise management, they are very well prepared to use text-books in such regular studies as they ought to pursue.

These studies may be enumerated as follows:

1. Reading in second reader.
2. Spelling, both oral and written, including also definition.
3. Writing with lead pencils on paper, alternating with drawing.
4. Arithmetic, including notation and numeration, operations in the four ground rules, and mental exercises.
5. Geography—general map lessons on the continents, oceans, and their appendages, with map-drawing.

At this stage in the progress of the pupils, the reading and spelling exercises may be carried along in connection with each other. That is to say, the spelling may form a part of the reading lesson, and incidentally of all others. This will prevent an

undue multiplication of lessons, and will save time for other important work.

The teacher who has carefully studied the plan proposed for conducting the reading lessons for primary classes, in the TEACHER for December, 1870, pp. 99–101, will not require a very elaborate statement of the methods to be pursued for the secondary classes.

In order to secure fluency in the use of words, the recitation should begin each day by a rapid pronunciation on the part of the class in rotation of the more difficult words included in the lesson. If these words are not already arranged in spelling columns at the commencement of the subject to be read, let the teacher select and arrange them previously on the blackboard, and let the class be drilled in pronouncing and in spelling them by sound until they are well mastered.

The next step will be a thorough questioning of the class on the subject-matter of the lesson, with the view of determining whether the children have carefully studied it and properly comprehend its meaning. This having been done, it will be well to allow the members of the class to read each alternate word with the teacher, or with each other, *as a means of cultivating the habit of recognizing words readily at sight.* This power is indispensable to good reading, and its acquisition is the first step toward that rare accomplishment. While a pupil is troubled to recognize words, he is in no mood to master their meaning, or to give to the subject-matter that degree of expression which constitutes the principal charm of an accomplished reader.

This exercise of enunciating alternate words, may be followed by the reading of short paragraphs by each member of the class.

In conducting a reading lesson, the following rules may be suggested:

1. The teacher as well as the pupils should always be prepared by a careful study of the lesson.

2. The teacher should give the closest attention to the performance of each pupil.

3. He should see to it that each word is distinctly enunciated.

4. He should never allow a more rapid rate of utterance than is compatible with due precision in the articulation of the words.

5. The criticisms should generally be made by the teacher, and great care should be observed that they are pointed and do not degenerate into mere frivolities. They should always be made in a kind and friendly spirit.

6. Occasionally a paragraph may be read in concert by the class, but not too often.

7. It is better that a single paragraph be dwelt upon *until it has been well read*, than that an entire page should be run over in a careless and slip-shod manner. "Not how much but how well," is the true maxim for every school exercise, and when the teacher becomes fully possessed of the spirit of it, there will not be much poor work done in our schools.

TEACHING IN IDEAL.

BY W. H. WYNN.*

No mechanic or artist ever lifts a hand to his work except as guided by some ideal form already constructed in his mind. All the products of man's creative skill, and God's also, are duplicates of the mental archetypes which existed before them, and in accordance with which they were drawn out into their most delicate tracery and all the gossamer fineness of their finish. The colossal statue of Minerva was in the brain of Phidias before it took on the solid proportions of ivory and gold, and was impaled in the Parthenon. All forms of beauty, loveliness, grandeur and awe, which came out at last in the imposing pile of St. Peter the frescos of Florence, and the great master-pieces of music that still roll their peerless anthems down the ages, were at one time in the minds of Angelo and Raphael, Mozart and Beethoven, and there they painted their unseen pictures and breathed their inaudible accents.

These are the works of genius; but not otherwise are the most listless deeds of the most incapable men wrought out in the world. All work on models, ideal patterns, spiritual shapes and schemes, which figure themselves in "the light that never was on land or sea", live in the mind, and give to the inert matter of the world whatever of life and intelligence it is capable of receiving. The idea, the sentiment, God's thought, or man's thought, that enters into the material mass before us, and makes it otherwise than a jumble of incongruities, *rudis indigestaque moles*, that gives final end and design to every product of divine

* Deputy State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Iowa.

and human agency in the world :—this is the ideal of which philosophers are wont to speak, and in accordance with which the worlds were made. Day after day the work and play of our unceasing activities are, consciously or unconsciously, skillfully or clumsily, reproducing, in sensible imagery, this inner significance of our minds.

Now the school-master has his ideals also. Let us enter the scene of his labors, and see how, in the minutest particular, they determine the character of his work. Are they high or low? do they soar or grovel?—that is the question that comes up first for an answer upon the very threshold of the school-room. The privacy of the man's thoughts we dare not invade. There is a region of struggle and counsel, aspiration and insight, into which only he may find his way, at whose creative fiat all the otherwise loose materials of mind leap into shapes of harmony and joy. It is well for him it is so. Many a poor teacher, seeking to make a way for his high ideal amidst the untoward and unyielding material in which he works, is often so overwhelmed with defeat and disappointment, that his heart must fail within him, but for his privileged access to this inner penetralia of his soul, where he renews his courage in the ideal triumphs already achieved.

Pestalozzi was a touching illustration of this. His life was a repetition of the ever-recurring paradox of the great; a series of brilliant failures that swell out at last the posthumous victory of his name. And yet defeat never clipt his wings. His great soul had brooded over an advanced ideal of the art of teaching, and he had at least seen it realized in what Coleridge calls the *eisemplastic* movements of his own mind. There was a chamber of imagery there, and to it, O how often, baffled and jaded, he was glad to retreat, to reassure himself in the light of reason, and carry out successfully his methods with ideal groups of boys and girls that met him there.

Far from being an illusion, it is a most solid achievement to be able to teach school successfully in the brain. Fifty or a hundred actual, living, romping, saucy children, with rude and ungrateful parents to back them, and an unsympathizing community all around, may make it even impossible to move this ideal scheme from the brain, and cause it to settle with equipoise among the benches. Ideal schools are not real schools—ideal methods are not real methods; but shall we therefore conclude that all that intense brooding of soul, that creative struggle through which the teacher is wont to pass at eventide when the children are

gone away, is but the unhappy mood of an impatient spirit be dizzened with dreams?

No! a dream and an ideal differ in this: the one is a hippogriff and the other is an Apollo Belvidere; the one a grotesque, fanciful jumble of cloudland and moonlight, the aimless past-time of indolence and *ennui;* the other an organized, rational scheme of work, sufficiently near the stern realities of every-day school experience to pervade and vitalize it, and sufficiently above and beyond it to be the goal toward which it may forever aspire.

There is, of necessity, a perpetual discrepancy between the teacher's ideal and his work. Struggle as he may with the details of the system before him, there never passes a day over his head in the twilight of which he can sit down and write, "This day's work has fully realized the desire of my heart." His ideal has an element of infinity in it, which the material of the finite work can symbolize but never fully embody. As in statuary the sculptor succeeds in making the lifeless marble convey somewhat the impress of his thought, causing his ideal to hang about the chiseled proportions as a halo, a mist, a veil, something which we see and do not see *in* the stone indeed, but coming down upon it with a range of infinity to which the artist skill is never commensurate so the teacher, by dint of industry and patience, may get so far on as to see his genius pervading the school-room as an evanishing presence, as a drapery which he may fold back carefully when the last pair of boots has echoed away. At the close of the term he will report to the authorities that he has made indefinite approaches toward a goal that is a long way in the distance and they, perhaps, for imagined incompetency, will send him away.

Nevertheless the teacher lives in his ideals. If he be true to his vocation, he will find his chief comfort in planning for his school. He will set apart a portion of each day,—best when the shadows of evening are creeping into his apartment,—to enter, with solemn tread and a royal courage, that sanctuary for all souls where, in the presence of the grander realities of human life and destiny, his soul may catch fresh inspiration for duty, and come down with an approved pattern from the Mount, the loftiest maxim of which will be couched in Jean Paul Richter's memorable words: "I love God and little children."

Des Moines, Feb. 1871.

SPELLING—ITS PRINCIPLES.

BY W. WATKINS.

Spelling is representing words by appropriate characters. This definition includes the proper use of capitals, of the hyphen in compound words, of the apostrophe, the diëresis, the cedilla, and such other diacritical marks as may be necessary to the correct representation of a word.

What is called *oral* spelling consists in naming, in their order, the letters which compose a written word. To illustrate the difference between *oral* and *real* spelling, we may say that the latter is constructing a machine by putting its parts together, each in its place, while the former is simply *naming* the parts in order.

Real spelling is the complete synthesis of a written word. Oral spelling is analytical—it gives in order the names of the elements of a written word.

Phonic spelling is to the spoken word, what oral spelling is to the written word. It is the analysis of the spoken word into its vocal elements.

In order to write a word, it is necessary to know how to spell it. We teach spelling, in order that our pupils shall be able to write English words correctly. For misspelling a word used in composition, there is no excuse. We must know the spelling of every word which we have occasion to use, but we can well afford to be ignorant of those for which we have no use. If we are asked, as a test, to spell a word, we may plead as a just excuse for our ignorance that the word is strange to us; we do not know its use; it is not in our stock. If, however, we use the word in writing, we shall be counted ignorant unless we write it correctly. We may, without a blush, confess ignorance of the name of a stranger, but we are bound to know the names of our friends.

It is related of the humane Dr. Mason, of Boston, that once, on entering a school-room, he found a little boy standing on the floor in disgrace. He asked the cause, and found that the child could not spell "forest." Addressing the child kindly, the doctor soon found him ignorant of what a forest *is*. The doctor hereupon wisely concluded that it was not yet necessary for the boy to be able to spell the word.

The spelling should not be taught before the word. First the idea, then the spoken word, then the printed form of the word

then the spelling. If our spelling-book makers do not understand this, so much the worse for them.

The whole number of words in Worcester's Dictionary is 104,000, which is many more than the language ever contained at one time—so great is the number of obsolete words—and is vastly more than any one individual ever possessed or used. A part of the language is all that any individual ever needs.

The number of words in a man's vocabulary is commensurate with the extent of his culture. The man of vigorous and exact thought and much experience will have a large stock of words fitted to express many ideas, and accurately to discriminate between ideas but slightly different. The undiscriminating and sluggish mind will need fewer words. It is said that there are peasants in England whose whole stock of words does not exceed two or three hundred. The few and physical wants of savages are expressed by a scanty vocabulary. There are languages which have no numerals higher than ten.

A language is the product of the thought of the nation which speaks it; it is ever strong and copious in the fields where national thought has been exercised; it is weak and poor where few have ventured to think and do. The whole is greater than the part—national thought than individual thought; the language than any man's vocabulary.

What words compose a man's vocabulary depends on circumstances. The physician has many words of which the mechanic and lawyer are ignorant. Rarely, if ever, will the vocabularies of two persons coincide. School instruction must prepare each to spell the words which he will use in life. Happily it is not necessary for us to enter upon the appalling task of teaching each pupil to spell all the words in the language. Were this practicable, it would require each to perform much unnecessary labor.

We notice that our higher pupils in mathematics and the sciences usually spell at first trial the hard words contained in their lessons.

Spelling forms no part of the labor of learning a foreign language, but those who study the languages are almost invariably found able to spell any word they know. Why? Because a habit has been formed of learning the spelling at the time the word is learned.

Dr. Arnold thought that boys were sent to him, not to read, but to learn how to read,—to form the habit of reading right.

Just so our pupils are sent to us, not to learn to spell the difficult and unusual technical terms which they will find in their trades and professions, but to form such habits as will render the acquisition of the correct spelling of these words easy whenever they shall meet them in real life.

We may so train our pupils in school, that they will unconsciously learn the spelling of every word they meet. The first essential to this is a thorough acquaintance with the spelling of the words which form our own stock. If a teacher be perfectly familiar with the faces of his sixty pupils, he will be able to remember the face and name of a new pupil at once. If, however, the school be strange, the new pupil but adds to and increases the confusion. The strong point of that wonderful teacher, Jacotot, was the relativity of knowledges. The knowledge of one science is more or less intimately connected with the knowledge of other sciences. His golden sentence was, "We must learn something well, and then refer everything else to it." It is by comparison or contrast that the teacher so easily learns the new face; and the sixty well-known faces furnish the basis for the comparison or contrast. Just so a new word is compared with others, and characterized by its likeness or unlikeness to some word or family of words already well known.

This explains why the hard words of our spelling books—phthisic, etc.—are always so readily and easily learned. They are so marked a contrast to the ordinary rules of spelling.

If the work done in the school-room be accurate and genuine, its fruit in later life will be a marvelous facility of acquiring knowledge. This important fact is, however, the source of a gigantic evil; for from a recognition of the necessity of accurate and thorough instruction in school, has arisen that system of drill which has made the teacher a mechanic, the school a machine, and the pupils manufactured products. No lifeless routine, no dull system of technical drill will produce good scholars from the masses of our pupils. Still less is it to be hoped that such a system will arouse and develop a strong and generous character. The human mind can not be educated by machinery. The school is our opportunity to assist boys and girls to grow up into strong and useful men and women. While this is doing, they may be trained and taught to do many things, and among these to write English words correctly.

Principles are more important than methods. The teacher must be full of the educative spirit. He must have a clear idea

of the point aimed at, and of the principles which are to guide him in teaching it; after which he finds it easy to make his own methods, or to appropriate and fill with his own spirit the methods of another. Spelling must be divested of a dry technical character, and be made interesting and educative.

In future numbers, we may suggest several methods of teaching in accordance with the principles laid down in this paper.

Middletown, O.

IS EDUCATION A SCIENCE?

BY JOHN OGDEN.

If it is, wherein does it differ from other sciences? What are its limits? Are they clearly and well defined? What are its claims? What does it propose to do? If education is not a science, why are its claims not disproved, and its lofty pretensions set aside? Why not end a discussion, which, if the negative be true, can have no higher aim than to bolster up a false theory? Why not also disclaim the idea of a "teaching profesession," and place it, where it must of necessity belong, along side of hunting and fishing, or boot-blacking, or ditching, or any such employment, requiring little or no skill and but little, if any, previous preparation?

We claim that the distinctions here are fairly stated, and the issue clearly taken; for education either *is* a science, or it is *not*. If the former is true, its claims rise to the very highest pinnacle of importance; if the latter, they fall to a corresponding depth, and this, too, from the very nature of the employment itself.

These inquiries, in substance at least, have existed in the mind of the educational public for the last quarter of a century, at least; and to-day, while there is a preponderance of opinion in favor of the general proposition, there is little or no agreement as to detail. Educators, now-a-days, pretty generally admit that education is, or ought to be, a science; but few are decided, in their own minds, as to what it is, or in what form the science exists; and fewer still, agree as to the elements of this science, its nature, scope, and purposes.

It is with a view to elicit discussion on this subject,—hoping thereby to have my own views corrected, if wrong,—and to

hasten a more general understanding of the subject in hand, that I am induced to attempt a series of articles for this journal. An absence of more than ten years from my native State has neither weakened my love for her institutions, nor dampened my ardor in the cause of popular education. I therefore beg the indulgence of my fellow-teachers, while I try to set forth a few plain, simple truths that seem to me vital to that possible success which surely awaits a thorough understanding and a right appreciation of the principles of which these truths are the exponents.

I wish to begin with a few plain and generally accepted definitions, not so much for the purpose of enlightening others, as to provide myself with convenient references in future.

1. "*Education*",—from "e", *out*, and "duco", *I lead*,—primarily considered, signifies a *leading out and developing*, and may be applied to either matter or mind.

2. "*Education*", more practically considered, or when applied to human beings, means *the awakening, drawing out, and training of their several faculties, or latent powers of body, intellect, and soul.*

We therefore assume, for present convenience, what perhaps will not be denied, but which we propose to prove further on, that education, in its broadest sense, is both a science and an art. As a science, it discusses—

1. Man's capabilites, or capacity, as an educable being, in a physical, intellectual, and spiritual sense.

2. The nature, force, and value of all forms of knowledge, science and art, as educational means or instrumentalities.

3. The philosophy of methods, defining and explaining the principles underlying and the laws regulating human growth, development, and maturity, whether of body, intellect, or soul.

Education, therefore, in the first sense, is nearly allied to anthropology; in the second, it is a diagnosis of science, art, and literature; in the third, it is *universal didactics.*

Like all other merely human sciences, the discovery of its facts, principles, and laws, is the result of investigation and experiment. This pre-supposes *art.* Education, therefore, as an art, receives these facts and principles at the hand of scientific investigation, and applies and enforces them according to the fixed laws of thought and action, in the awakening, unfolding, cultivating, and refining of human beings.

In this comprehensive sense, it covers the whole field of human culture, whether it relates to learning or teaching, acquiring or

imparting knowledge or skill; and in this latter sense alone, it is properly denominated *special didactics.*

In our next, we shall offer some reasons for concluding that education is a science, whose principles are well defined and fixed, and whose claims to such a title are indisputable.

CLASS ORGANIZATION.

BY JAMES M. REES.

One does not need a memory of very long reach to take hold of the time when the unit of the school was the scholar. Now the unit of the school is the class. This change marks the fundamental difference between the schools of this and of that former time; to it, furthermore, must largely be referred the improvement of our common schools. The change itself is due to a wise spirit of organization that has been infused into our schools. The fixing of the number of these class units, together with a regular course of study for each class, makes what is called a graded school.

It will, perhaps, be profitable to find the principle upon which this system of class organization rests. We shall then be prepared to see fully the advantages of it; and shall, moreover, not be surprised to find that it is open, unless carefully guarded, to serious objections. From not carefully considering the foundation of this kind of organization, objections have in some cases been misdirected, and incorrect remedies proposed.

All schemes of organization, and of instruction, too, must proceed upon some facts of our nature. As they accord with these, they are valid. With this view of the matter, we put aside all reasons from convenience, economy of time, etc., and bring forward, as the justification, nay, even the possibility of a system of class organization, the obvious fact that, within certain general limits, all persons are alike. We must not be surprised to find little facts of this kind underlying and supporting,—furnishing the very condition of the existence of great superstructures. The simple fact that men, if left to themselves, are generally very much disposed to take the best care of themselves, underlies almost the whole system of political economy. Legislation has made its best advances when, after adding a few necessary checks,

it has recognized this same fact. So with this principle. Our pupils are seen to be pretty much alike. The only difference that we notice, and we do not notice this very closely, is a difference of attainment. Take, now, those whose attainments are in a general way equal, and, on the fact of their general similarity, we are justified in adopting a system of classes.

The advantages, resulting in point of convenience and economy of time, sanction the system, and approve its general wisdom. But is there not to be found with the plan a fundamental objection? No; the plan itself is almost perfect. The objection is not to be laid to the system, but rather to the error of not taking advantage of all that the system gives us. We expect of it what we should not expect, as we shall try to show.

We have a double nature: on the one side we are like everybody else; on the other, we are different. Organization by classes takes the first; it, of course, rejects the second. It undertakes to provide for our common wants; it can not supply, directly, our individual, special demands. It engages to do no more than this. We should ask no more of it. It is as unjust as it would be to demand that the man who engages to make our shoes should also make our trowsers. Shall we say, then, that a course of instruction must take no notice of this individualizing element of our nature? Far from it. The highest and holiest function of the teacher is to train this element of personality,—that makes each man, as I once heard it nobly said, "a new creation of God." The truth is, that it is only the class organization that gives an opportunity for this work on the individual pupil. Take John, Henry, and William separately, and you will not be able to satisfy their common wants; take them together, and you can hope to satisfy what they need in common, and have time to meet more of their special demands. Unless you have a teacher for each pupil, this must be the case. Class organization alone furnishes the opportunity for that special care of each scholar's personality that will develop in him a true originality, and true originality is nothing more than the proper action of personality in a field of action common to all.

That there is a fault in our instruction at this point, can not be denied. We wish merely to give the fault its proper place. The error of not cultivating the element of personality is in not taking advantage of the opportunity which class organization gives us, and also in teaching a class as if it were a kind of abstraction, instead of a number of real, living souls.

We must follow the trail of this objection further; for it is a real one, and will indicate a point too much overlooked. Why is not class instruction supplemented by some of this individual instruction? For the obvious reason, that our schools are often so crowded that it is impossible for teachers to do more than attend to their classes. We want fewer pupils and more teachers to a school.

Cicero well refers honorable and becoming conduct to the right working of our two characters: that which is common to all of us; that which belongs to each of us. If education is to prepare us for such conduct, it must take charge of both. A system of graded instruction will do for this more than anything else, but it must be supplemented in some way. The most obvious, and most unlikely, is that pointed out: the reduction of the number of scholars and the increase of the number of teachers. Another way is for each teacher to aim by giving extra time and labor, in private talks, etc., to try to meet the scholar on the ground of his individuality. Lastly, let each scholar feel as far as possible that all class instruction comes personally to him.

[From the Sandusky Register.]

THE "LOCK-OUT" REMEDY FOR TARDINESS.

ED. REGISTER:—In your issue of yesterday morning, I find the following:

SANDUSKY, O., January 24, 1871.

ED. REGISTER:—Coming down town this morning, the town clock indicating 9:15, I met five girls, pupils of the High School, returning home; enquired if there was no school? Answered—"locked out." Are the interests of the pupils or the convenience of teachers best subserved by such an arrangement

OBSERVER.

Our schools open at ten minutes before nine o'clock. The five girls were met at "9:15", making a difference of twenty-five minutes between the opening of the schools and the meeting of the girls. Our banks close their doors to the public at three o'clock P.M.; credit, success, fortune, go overboard by five minutes' delinquency at these institutions. While the town clock is striking eight P.M., the heavy iron doors of our postoffice begin to swing together. No written message, "Please excuse my son," makes any impression upon the stony-hearted government officials inside. At 7:40 A.M., away goes the Baltimore Express

and, two minutes later, neither tears nor prayers will place you upon the train. At 7 A.M., the different manufacturing establishments call many hundreds of laborers to stand at the benches, the lathes, the forges. A single signal and all is activity—*every man is at his post.*

Whose "convenience", Mr. Observer, is consulted in these usages? Is punctuality in all business affairs a hindrance, or a promoter of success; a curse or a blessing to the community as a whole? Would three or four or five minutes *grace* to delinquents at each depot and railway station in the land be, on the whole, an advantage to the public? Can there be three hundred men brought together in any manufacturing business, where five minutes or three minutes *grace* to delinquents could possibly tend to the success of the establishment.

Can you, Mr. Observer, or any one else, point to the instance where three hundred persons labor together for a common object without mutual dependence upon the regularity and faithfulness of each other in appointed duties? Whose "convenience" is consulted when proprietors do not allow five or ten per cent. for *delays*, "clock stopped", "did not notice the time", "dinner was late", "baby was sick", etc., when the grand result of the day or of the entire investment depends upon the faithfulness and regularity of each man at his post?

Now, Mr. Observer, we have a close rule of punctuality, applicable to the high-school building only. In this building there are daily instructed, in round numbers, three hundred pupils, by six teachers. The classes are very large, often fifty or sixty in each. The daily order of studies and recitations is fixed, and must be fixed with as much exactness as a railroad time table. There must be regularity and harmony in school work as well as in a factory. One great point of advantage of public classified schools is their *economy* of time and money; and this economy of time and money is based upon the possibility and practicability of instructing large numbers together in the same class. But large classes can not be formed or sustained except there is a uniformity of standing and proficiency; and, again, this uniformity of progress depends upon regularity of attendance upon all the class exercises.

Now for the final question, Which will give the highest per cent. of regularity and punctuality, a lax rule or a stringent one? Which will give the best results any where else, in any business concern? What prosperous business on the face of the earth

would not suffer by the introduction of a lax rule of punctuality and regularity of its workmen and officers? The few might be indulged or accommodated; but it would be at the expense of the many, or with the utmost certainty of a final diminution of profits.

In the enforcement of a strict rule of attendance and punctuality in our High School, it is simply assumed, first, that the people desire to obtain the greatest possible return for the money invested; second, that the *good of the whole* is to be consulted in the adoption or enforcement of any rule of discipline or instruction, instead of the convenience of any fractional minority; third, that cases of exclusion under the rule from real necessity, *and all other causes*, do not amount to five per cent. of the enrollment; fourth, that our citizens value the cultivation of the habit of punctuality simply for its own sake, as well as habits of industry and propriety of deportment. SUPERINTENDENT.

"WANTED."

BY ANSON G. CHESTER.

The world wants MEN—light hearted, manly men,
Men who shall join its chorus, and prolong
The psalm of labor and the song of love.

The times wants SCHOLARS—scholars who shall shape
The doubtful destinies of dubious years,
And land the ark that bears our country's good,
Safe on some peaceful Ararat at last.

The age wants HEROES—heroes who shall dare
To struggle in the solid ranks of truth;
To clutch the monster error by the throat;
To bear opinion to a loftier seat;
To blot the era of oppression out,
And lead a universal freedom in.

And heaven wants SOULS—fresh and capacious souls,
To taste its raptures, and expand like flowers,
Beneath the glory of its central sun.
It wants fresh souls, not lean and shriveled ones;
It wants fresh souls, my brother,—GIVE IT THINE.

If thou, indeed, will act as man should act;
If thou, indeed, will be what scholars should;
If thou wilt be a hero, and wilt strive
To help thy fellow and exalt thyself,
Thy feet at last shall stand on jasper floors,
Thy heart at last shall seem a thousand hearts,
Each single heart with myriad raptures filled—
While thou shalt sit with princes and with kings,
Rich in the jewel of a ransomed soul.

Editorial Department.

——This number closes the tenth year of our editorial management of the Ohio Educational Monthly, and the occasion recalls the deep solicitude with which we entered upon the work. In ordinary times, the undertaking would have required no little courage, but we had not completed our first editorial when the attack upon Fort Sumter summoned the nation to arms, paralyzing business, and obliging us seriously to consider the abandonment of our enterprise. But the increased importance and necessity of the work undertaken bade us go forward, and, though we have since seen several "blue" seasons, we have never regretted our obedience to what seemed the call of duty. We are conscious that our work has been done very imperfectly, but, thanks to the steady and, we are glad to add, increasing support of teachers and friends of education, we are able to say that our moderate anticipations have been realized, and that we are hopeful of the future. While these ten volumes severally fall far below our ideal of an educational journal, their examination shows one excellence which we may properly notice. These four thousand pages are not defaced by disparaging personalities. It is possible that we have erred in being too free in personal commendations, as in several instances, now in mind, we have commended those who proved unworthy, but our excuse is found in the pleasure it affords us to say a good word for any earnest and true worker in the great cause. But enough of retrospect. Grateful for the charity and support of the past ten years, we enter on another decade, cheered with the hope that we shall be able to make this journal worthier of the cause to which it is devoted. Its national edition, The National Teacher, which has been so favorably received by the educators of the country, greatly increases our opportunities of usefulness.

——Our contributors are commendably brief this month, and, as a consequence, they discuss an unusual variety of topics, several of which are of great practical interest. Mr. Ormsby is clearly exposing one radical defect of most text-books on English grammar, and his remaining two articles will be looked for with great interest. We can indorse most of Mr. Watkins's principles relating to spelling, but we fear that he has carried the central one too far. How is the teacher to determine what words each of his pupils "will use in life"? Can this be settled *a priori*? The principle seems to us as impracticable as the kindred educational theory, that a child should be taught nothing in school which he will not use in life—a theory which reduces school instruction to very narrow limits. By the use of a word we understand Mr. Watkins to mean its employment in speech or writing. But every intelligent person hears and reads many words which he himself never uses. Hence his knowledge of words must be wider than his vocabulary. Should the pupil's spelling be confined to

words in his vocabulary, while he is taught the meaning of many other words? It strikes us that our schools should aim to teach both the meaning and the spelling of the words which compose the vocabulary of the great majority of intelligent people. Such a mastery of words increases the pupil's ability to understand what he reads or hears, and it also adds to his own vocabulary—a fact worthy of special attention. But we commend the practice of teaching pupils the meaning and the use of the words which they are required to spell, and the child's word-drills should certainly be devoted to common words.

——THE *Pennsylvania School Journal* for March contains an able and earnest editorial in opposition to the scheme to establish a national system of education. It urges that the policy is opposed to the theory and practice of our national government, to the views of the founders of the Republic and of the leading statesmen of the nation, and to a sound political philosophy. It gives an analysis of Mr. Hoar's bill and characterizes it as "a measure fraught with danger to our republican institutions." The OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY was, we believe, the first educational journal in the country to oppose this unwise movement, and since the NATIONAL TEACHER was started, in October last, both of these journals have borne repeated and emphatic testimony against it. We became aware of the existence of this movement in 1868, and we had carefully examined the subject in its different bearings and consequences before it took shape in Congress. As soon as we became satisfied that Mr. Hoar's bill would be seriously pressed, we were prepared to oppose it, notwithstanding it was advocated by able and zealous friends of education, whose opinions were worthy of consideration, and whose intentions were commendable. We believed that the measure would postpone, instead of promoting, the establishment of efficient school systems in the Southern States, and, so believing, we felt to be our duty to oppose it. We were confident that our course would be indorsed by the leading educators of the country, and of this we have satisfactory evidence.

——THE discussion of Mr. Hoar's bill in Congress has aroused the nation to a consideration of the imperative necessity of universal education. It has startled even politicians by the disclosure of the alarming fact that the ballot is in the hands of more than half a million voters who can neither read nor write. "We must educate or we shall perish", is the conclusion of every thoughtful statesman, and this raises the earnest inquiry, "What can the General Government do to secure the establishment of efficient school systems throughout the country?" The discussion has made manifest the impracticability of a scheme of national compulsion, and the wiser policy of national assistance is now under consideration. A bill to set apart and devote all moneys arising from the sales of public lands for five years to common schools in the South, was introduced into the last House by Mr. Arnell, of Tennessee, and a similar bill though more elaborate, was introduced by Mr. Burchard, of Texas. These bills were referred to the Committee on Education and Labor, and a bill containing a like provision was agreed upon, but was not reported, we believe, be

fore the adjournment of Congress. We also learn that several Senators, headed by Senator Wilson, of Massachusetts, propose to push a similar measure in the Senate. We hope that the appropriation will be made four-fold greater than the proceeds of the sales of the public lands, now amounting to but $1,000,000 to $1,500,000 a year. The objection to both of the House bills is, that the appropriation is made *without conditions*. "The gods help those who help themselves", and all national appropriations to aid the South in the establishment of school systems, should be made on the same wise condition. National aid should be made the means of securing proper state and local action. We have advocated the policy of national assistance from the first, and we are glad to give the present movement in Congress a hearty and earnest support. It is in the right direction.

—— We failed to receive an early copy of the annual report of the National Commissioner of Education, and hence our notice of this important document is quite tardy. It was prepared by Commissioner Eaton in the first eight months of his official term, and hence it should not be considered a fair specimen of the reports which may be expected in the future. It is a mass of facts and observations, arranged with too little system and clearness to make a very marked impression upon the public mind. This is evidently the result of hasty preparation, as no man could arrange and master the amount of matter crowded into this report, in eight brief months. The report proper, which fills eighty pages, discusses a great number and variety of topics. In considering the question of "Education and Labor", to which much space is devoted, the Commissioner raises again the inquiry made by Horace Mann many years ago, respecting the relative productiveness of educated and uneducated labor. The testimony given by various classes of workingmen and observers, to whom circulars were addressed, points to the conclusion reached by Mr. Mann, that education increases the productive value of the common laborer; that an educated man, other things being equal, will do more and better work than one who is uneducated, the superiority of the former being most marked in those departments of labor requiring skill. We have read the portion of the report relating to school statistics, with some disappointment. It is true that the defects in our state and local statistics are considered, but no remedy is suggested. What is needed is a plan to secure the requisite uniformity, and this must come from the National Bureau. The mere collation of the statistics given in state and city school reports, will not suffice. These statistics must be tabulated on a uniform and intelligent basis. But we are aware that the maturing of such a system requires time, and hence these remarks are not intended to be a criticism. We have only space to add that this report shows that the Commissioner is earnestly prosecuting the great work before him.

—— At the recent convention of the school examiners of Ohio, it was remarked by an intelligent examiner that he would not give a "fig" for the examination of an applicant in the theory and practice of teaching. The remark

surprised us, and we have since wondered whether this opinion is held by any considerable number of examiners. It is too late in the history of education for any intelligent educator to question the value of a knowledge of the principles and methods of teaching to the teacher. The entire system of normal training, both in this country and in Europe, is based on the fact that such professional knowledge is valuable and fruitful. The examiner's remark must, therefore, imply that it is impossible *to test* this knowledge by an examination. With due deference, we submit the opinion that this depends on the *character* of the examination. An examination in arithmetic may be a poor test of the applicant's knowledge of the subject, and a poorer test of his ability to teach it. Much depends on the qualifications of the examiner and on his views respecting what is fundamental and important. So in theory and practice. The examination may be made a stupid farce, or it may be so conducted as to disclose the applicant's knowledge or ignorance of vital principles and true practice. Moroever, the examination of teachers in the principles and methods of their art is a potent and valuable professional incentive. It incites a spirit of professional inquiry; sets teachers to reading professional works; brings them out to the teachers' institute; and sends them to the normal school. It is true that a knowledge of the principles and methods of teaching does not insure skill in their application and use. Neither does a knowledge of any branch of study insure the ability to teach it. But knowledge is the first requisite. The amendment to the Ohio school law in 1864, making a knowledge of the theory and practice of teaching a requisite qualification for a teacher's certificate, has contributed largely to the professional improvement of the teachers of the State, and, as a consequence, to the progress of the schools. The provision should be made effective in every county of the State.

—— The *Illinois Teacher* for February contains a suggestive article by Prof. E. W. Gray on the "Organization of Common Schools." He urges that country schools should be uniformly graded and classified, and that a uniform course of study, corresponding to the established grades and classes, should be prescribed, and all this should be done by the authority of boards of education as is now done in cities and towns, that the organization may stand from term to term and from year to year. The number and kinds of classes, and the studies to be pursued being fixed, the pupils should be regularly advanced from grade to grade, until the whole course is finished. He submits a schedule exhibiting the gradation for six years, with eighteen daily exercises. In many districts, he thinks there need not be more than thirteen classes in all, and he sees "no good reason why the conceded advantages of graded schools may not be largely enjoyed in all the schools of the country." It will be conceded by all who are acquainted with our country schools, that such an organization as that proposed by Prof. Gray, would largely increase their efficiency and usefulness. What is needed to make any such plan successful, is the township system with the schools under the direction of one authority. But something in the direction of a better classification may be done by teachers. Fragments of classes may, in many instances, be consolidated, the number of classes ma

otherwise be reduced, and time for better teaching thus be gained. Prof. Gray refers to the movement in Miami county, Ohio, to secure a better organization of the country schools. The course of study recommended by the county teachers' association is being adopted with satisfactory results. The investigation of this subject promises valuable returns, and we commend it to the attention of teachers' institutes.

THE MANAGEMENT OF TEACHERS' INSTITUTES.

Nearly one-third of the teachers in the more progressive school States are annually gathered into teachers' institutes. This increasing recognition of the teachers' institute as a valuable means of school improvement, makes its proper management a matter of very great importance. It is the normal school for the great majority of teachers, and it ought to be so conducted as to furnish the greatest possible professional assistance. As a help in this direction, we propose to point out several common errors in the conduct of teachers' institutes—

1. The first mistake to which we call attention, is the attempt *to go over too much ground.* It is not unusual for a five-day institute to attempt instruction in each of the six common branches, in one or two higher branches, and in theory and practice, including school organization and government, with "dis cussions" on various topics, the answering of "budget" questions, etc. The result is a general scattering, with very unsatisfactory results. The various subjects can merely be touched upon, and the instruction is necessarily haphazard and superficial. It would be much better to reduce the number of subjects full one-half, and make the instruction more systematic and thorough. This is easily and satisfactorily done by covering one half of the ground at one annual institute, and the other half at the next. If arithmetic, reading, and spelling are considered this year, the next institute may take up English grammar, geography, and writing—and so in the other departments. It is far better to give the subject of school government a thorough discussion once in three years even, than to be dabbling with it at every institute.

2. Another error in institute management is *the employment of too many instructors.* This error often springs from a desire to announce an attractive programme "to bring out the teachers", and the device may succeed in communities where the true function of an institute is not appreciated. But as a general policy it is a failure. We have often said that the most successful method of inducing teachers to attend institutes is to make the exercises of *practical value* to them. An institute that awakens a desire for professional assistance, and then meets such desire in a practical manner, will not need a formidable array of names to secure the presence of teachers. The objection to too many instructors is the want of method and unity in their instruction. No definite system of teaching is developed, and hence the teachers carry away very little that they can put into practice. A few months since we attended a four-day institute, which had as many as *seven* instructors. One gave instruc-

tion in drawing, another in vocal music, another in elocution, another in English grammar, etc. Neither had time to do his subject or himself justice, and the poor teachers were fairly buried in a confused mass of generalities. One instructor who had come over one hundred miles, had two exercises of about thirty minutes each; another gave but a single lesson. Most of our Ohio institutes are now managed more wisely and, we may add, more economically. Our committees have learned that two regular instructors, with a teacher of music, penmanship, or some other specialty, make an ample corps for efficient work.

3. Another mistake, worthy of attention, is the failure *to adapt the instruction to the circumstances and needs of country teachers.* The great majority of those who attend our ordinary county institutes, are teachers of ungraded schools, and it is surprising how little of the instruction imparted they put into actual practice. They listen to the lectures, admire, it may be, the excellence of the methods of teaching elucidated, and then go away and trudge along in their old ruts. Nor is this result wholly their fault. The methods of teaching presented in our institutes are largely those used in the better class of graded schools in cities and towns. Country teachers feel that these methods are impracticable in ungraded schools, and so they put them aside as "graded-schoo methods." What is needed is to convince teachers that these better methods are practicable in ungraded as well as in graded schools, and this is to be done, not by assertion, but by actually showing *how* they may be used. It is not enough to present a method, and then tell country teachers that it must be modified to suit their circumstances. To make this necessary modification requires a degree of skill, invention, and experience, which teachers as a class do not possess, and hence they will fail in the attempt. It is just at this point that they specially need the assistance of their more experienced guides. It is true that many teachers reject every method, which lies outside of their own experience, as impracticable, and this is doubtless one reason why so much of institute instruction is practically rejected. It is also true that the clear conception of truer methods of teaching has its practical value. No teacher can fail to be benefited by the possession of such an ideal. It will unconsciously enter into his work, and he will often seek for some path by which he may advance toward it. The suggestion which we wish to emphasize is, that institute instruction should be given more largely from the stand-point of the country teacher.

4. An error kindred to the last mentioned, is the failure *to make the instruction sufficiently simple and systematic.* Most of the teachers attending institutes have a very limited education; they have read little or nothing on teaching or school management, and are unacquainted even with the more common technical terms of the profession. To talk of the "objective method", the "illustrative method", the "inductive process", the "memoriter process", etc., is largely to waste one's breath. The institute instructor must begin with the known; and he will find this far back of "advanced ideas." Nor will it answer to give instruction in too abstract and general terms. Methods must be presented in the concrete, and hence they should not only be clearly described, but, as far as practicable, they should be illustrated by a class exercise. We have,

however, very little faith in the attempt to make an institute a "model school." The essential conditions are wanting. Methods of oral instruction may be illustrated by "model lessons", and model drills in reading and vocal music may be made very valuable, not only as illustrations of good teaching, but as a means of improving teachers in these arts. At least one-fourth of the time of an institute may be profitably devoted to these illustrative exercises. But most school recitations involve a previous preparation of the lesson, and the attempt to conduct such recitations without this preparation as a basis, is to make them any thing but models of true teaching.

5. The only other error, which we have space to notice, is *the prominence given to academic instruction.* This results from a desire on the part of teachers to improve their scholarship; from the inability of many institute instructors to present the principles and methods of teaching; and, generally, from a non-appreciation of the need and value of professional training. But whatever may be the cause of this error, we are glad to observe that it is decreasing, and that institute instruction is becoming more and more professional in its character. A few years since, most of the institute lectures, to which we listened, related to the subject-matter of the several branches of study. The instructor in arithmetic explained the different systems of notation; the "borrowing of ten" in subtraction; the "inversion of the divisor" in the division of fractions; the different methods of computing interest, etc.,—and all this was done without touching upon the true method of teaching arithmetic. A similar course was taken in English grammar. Its classifications, definitions, and rules were elucidated; difficult words were parsed; idiomatic constructions explained, etc., but the steps by which a class of pupils should be led to a mastery of the subject, were not traced. What we urge is, that institute instruction should unfold the vital, guiding principles of teaching, and that it should present and illustrate those methods which embody and realize these principles in actual practice. This is the prime function of the institute. The *what* is to be used as a means of teaching the *how*; and the *why*—the chief end is professional instruction and training.

The above remarks refer to the management of institutes which are permanently organized with annual sessions of five days each. When an institute is in session for several weeks, a portion of the time may be devoted to a review of the common branches, but great care should be taken to caution teachers against the acceptance of these review exercises as models of school recitations. That they may be made so, we do not doubt, but, if our observation is not at fault, this success is rarely attained. It is also well to provide direct instruction in those important higher branches which ought to receive more attention in the common schools—such as physical geography, natural philosophy, physiology and hygiene. Institutes continuing but four or five days may also profitably devote one exercise daily to such instruction, but its *method* should receive special attention.

Notwithstanding its imperfections, the teachers' institute is doing a most important work, and its good influence is felt in all our schools. We hope to see it not only improved, but supplemented by a normal institute system of a higher professional aim and character.

CLASS DRILLS IN READING.

It is not the purpose of this article to present the first steps in teaching a child to read, but rather to offer a few suggestions respecting the teaching of reading when blackboard and card lessons have been completed. How should classes in the first, second, and higher readers be taught? This is the inquiry to which we desire to give an answer.

The leading objects of a class drill in reading are (1) *a complete mastery of the words of the lesson*, and (2) *the correct reading of the sentences*; and it is to be observed that the first of these objects is preparatory to the second. The pupil can not read a sentence correctly until he has mastered the words of which it is composed. Hence the first step in a reading exercise is the teaching of the words.

This suggestion explains much of the poor success which so often attends the reading drills in our schools, and especially in our primary and secondary schools. The pupils are thrust at once into the reading of sentences, and these are taken up not singly, but in paragraphs. The attempt is made to master the words through the reading of the sentences, and the result is that the words are neither mastered nor the sentences read. The pupils go stumbling and drawling through the successive lessons without acquiring the ability to read accurately and intelligently, either silently or orally. It is exceedingly painful to listen to reading when pupils hesitate and stumble over unfamiliar words. The ability to call every word in a sentence *at sight* and to utter the same with accuracy and ease, is a prerequisite to oral reading.

The above analysis of the objects of a class drill in reading suggests that it should consist of two corresponding exercises, one designed to secure a mastery of the words and the other a correct reading of the sentences.

1. *The Mastery of Words.*—The mastery of a word includes the ability (1) to recognize or name it at sight; (2) to utter it with accuracy, force, and ease; (3) to spell or analyze it by sound and by letter; and (4) to comprehend its meaning and to use it intelligently. The second element specified and also the analysis by sound are not essential to silent reading, and would receive no attention in teaching the deaf and dumb, but the pupils in our ordinary schools are to be taught to read orally as well as silently, and hence all the elements specified should enter into a thorough word-drill. When all the words in a sentence are thus mastered by a pupil, he is prepared to attempt to give oral expression to the thought. What we desire specially to urge is, that this word-drill should *precede* sentence reading.

Among the various exercises which may be used to teach the words of a reading lesson, the following are the most valuable:

1. The pupils may be required to print or write all the *new* words. This will greatly assist in learning their pronunciation and spelling.

2. The words thus copied may be spelled orally from the slate in the class, and then pronounced rapidly up and down. This will secure accuracy in copying and fluency in pronouncing. Words which are peculiar in orthography or difficult to pronounce may be written on the board, and the class drilled upon them in concert and singly.

3. The words of the reading lesson may be assigned as a spelling lesson, and the pupils be required to spell them both by sound and letter. This will secure the study of the reading lesson, and will also enable the teacher to give due attention to the correct pronunciation and articulation of each word. We would urge every primary teacher to make this spelling exercise precede every exercise in reading.

4. The pupils before reading may pronounce the words from right to left, taking a line each, or the teacher may pronounce the first word at the right, a pupil the next word, the teacher the next, another pupil the next, and so on. Instead of pronouncing all the words, those containing two or more syllables may be given. If any pupil hesitates or blunders, the word should be pronounced by the class, separated into syllables, spelled by sound, etc.

5. The teacher may develop the meaning of each word by an easy object lesson, by familiar illustrations, and by using it in a phrase or sentence, easily understood. The importance of such instruction can not be too strongly urged.

6. The words thus familiarized should be used by the pupils in original sentences, both oral and written. This exercise is widely used in our best schools. It is not only valuable as a test of the pupil's knowledge of the meaning of words, but it is an excellent language lesson. The sentences thus formed should be read by the pupil, and subsequently examined by the teacher.

The above exercises variously combined, and modified to suit the ability and condition of teachers and classes, will largely obviate all hesitation and stumbling in the calling of words, and, at the same time, will impart to the pupil such a knowledge of their meaning as will greatly assist in the clear comprehension of the thought, without which good reading is impossible. They may receive attention in the first part of the reading exercise, or each alternate recitation may be devoted to them. The latter plan was adopted by one of the most successful teachers we have ever known, and with excellent results. She devoted the forenoon exercise entirely to the words in the afternoon lesson, and thus alternated word learning and sentence reading. We attach great importance to the phonic analysis of words, and to other vocal exercises which impart accuracy, modulation, force, and compass to the voice.

II. *The Reading of Sentences.*—The preparatory drill having received due attention, the next step is to "take the thought out of its verbal husk", and plant it in the mind of the reader. Good reading is the correct utterance of the thought and emotion of a passage—not the mere distinct enunciation of the words—and the thought must be grasped and the emotion felt before the vocal powers can give them due expression. Hence the reading of each sentence of a new lesson should be preceded by such questions as will bring out the leading thought and the force of each modifying element. The correct reading of a sentence often depends on the due appreciation of the force of a single word, and, generally, wrong emphasis is due to a lack of correct comprehension. The mistake of the voice is but the expression of the mind's blunder. The thought to be uttered should be analyzed by questions so that the pupil may view each part separately—may *feel* the force of every word and rhetorical figure.

Take, for illustration, a sentence now before me: "Think of the generalship of Washington, who, with a handful of undisciplined yeomanry, triumphed over the royal army." Of what are we to think? "The generalship of Washington." What shows his skill? "His triumph." Over whom did he triumph? "The royal army." Why is the army called royal? "It belonged to the King of England, and was brave and well disciplined." What is said of Washington's troops? "They were yeomanry—men of industrial pursuits." What was their condition? "They were undisciplined—untrained for war." What was their number? "They were but a handful—few in number."

Such an analysis as the above will rarely fail to secure the right emphasis, and arouse the interest and feeling necessary to lead to earnestness and force of utterance. In primary classes the questions should be simple and numerous; the unfamiliar words (if any remain) should be explained; and the whole exercise should, if possible, be made to glow with interest. In more advanced classes the questions may take a wider range, including style, figures of speech, etc. The one leading object should be to lead the pupil to grasp the thought and feel the sentiment of the passage—to baptize him into its spirit. If the mind is sluggish, the utterance will be monotonous; if the emotions are asleep, the tones will be lifeless.

The class is now prepared to attempt the reading of the sentence, and one attempt will not suffice. One pupil must try, then another, then the teacher, then the whole class in concert, then the first pupil, and so on until the reading is satisfactory. Errors in modulation, emphasis, force, etc., can only be corrected by persistent drill—a drill which shall not merely lead the pupil to imitate the teacher's reading, but which shall cause him to grasp and feel the thought and emotion to which he would give expression. The teacher's example should assist, but it should never be mechanically copied. When the reading of a sentence is satisfactory, the next should be taken, and so on through the paragraph.

We have thus imperfectly sketched a method of drilling classes in reading, which we can commend as thorough and successful We do not claim that it is *the* method or the best method, but we feel sure that is much superior to the general practice of teachers. The still prevalent method of divorcing spelling and reading and permitting pupils to read paragraph after paragraph through an entire lesson, is not worthy to be called teaching. But little better is the practice of requiring all the members of a class to read the same verse, in turn or as called upon. The exercise is almost sure to degenerate into a lifeless, mechanical routine. It is not even a good test of the pupil's acquaintance with the words. Question and drill must go hand in hand. The one picks the thought out of the sentence and kindles the feeling; the other gives them proper utterance. Reading thus taught trains the voice, sharpens the intellect, quickens the understanding, and elevates the taste. It enlarges the pupil's vocabulary, increases his command of language, and enriches his mind with noble thoughts and sentiments.

MISCELLANY.

—WHEN notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the TEACHER due him, we always remail it.

—THOMAS H. BURROWES, LL.D., for over twenty years editor of the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, died Feb. 25, 1871, aged 65. A sketch of his eminent services in the cause of education will be given next month.

—SAMUEL H. TAYLOR, LL.D., for many years Principal of Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., died of heart disease Jan. 29th, 1871, aged 63. His knowledge of Latin and Greek was remarkably thorough and critical, and it is believed that, as a teacher of these languages, he had no superior in the country, if he had a peer. His moral and religious influence over his pupils was very great.

—THE next annual meeting of the National Educational Association is to be held at St. Louis, August 22, 23, and 24. President Pickard and the chairmen of the several sections are engaged in making the necessary arrangements. It is expected that this meeting will excel all that have preceded it, in interest and practical results.

—THE city of Lynn, Mass., has elected six women, Worcester one, and Springfield one, to serve on the School Committee. In noticing these facts, the *Connecticut School Journal* pertinently asks, "If it is true that woman is by nature better fitted to teach than man, why should she not be likewise better qualified to judge of the fitness of teachers to perform their duties and of the quality of their work?"

—At the late election of the new school board of London, England, the members were chosen by all the rate-payers, male and female, voting by secret ballot, and each being permitted to cast a "cumulative" vote for a single candidate. Of the forty-nine candidates elected, two were women, Miss Garrett, M.D., and Miss Emily Davies. The former received 47,858 votes, while the next highest candidate (Prof. Huxley) received but 13,494 votes. When the board met to organize, the arrival of the two lady members was greeted with applause. The manner in which they are discharging their duties, is heartily commended by the London press.

—PRESIDENT ANGELL, of the University of Vermont, has accepted a second election to the presidency of the Michigan University, at Ann Arbor. His salary is $4,500 and house rent.——President J. H. Fairchild, of Oberlin College, Ohio, is traveling in Palestine. This is the first term of the college in thirty-seven years, or one hundred and eleven terms, that he has not been present in the capacity of student, tutor, professor, or president.——Rev. N. C. Burt, D.D., late President of the Ohio Female College, at College Hill, has opened a school for young ladies at Nice, France, where he has settled, hoping to recover his health.——Ex-Governor J. D. Cox has been tendered the presidency of the Ohio Agricultural and Mechanical College.——President Merrick, of the Ohio Wesleyan University, has so far recovered his health as to be able to resume his official duties.

—THE will of Perrin De Puy, lately deceased, gives the greater portion of his large estate to the board of education of Van Wert, Ohio, and to their successors in office, "for school purposes", with the expressed wish of the testator that the same be appropriated, if consistent with the powers and duties of said board, "to the building of an Orphan School House for the special purpose and benefit of the orphan and destitute children and for their education." The will further requests that such

children be received into the schools from all parts of the county. It is expected that this donation will amount to some $60,000, and its proper use is now under consideration. We take the liberty to suggest that the intention of Mr. De Puy will be best carried out by the erection of a suitable building for a home for destitute and orphan children, where they may be properly cared for, and the admission of such children into the public schools for their education. The larger portion of the bequest should, of course, be funded, and its interest used to pay the expenses of the home, including repairs, wages of matron and assistants, clothing, food, fuel, etc., and also to pay tuition in the public schools. Thus used the bequest may be made a great charity and blessing.

—— LAST summer one of the teachers in the public schools of Salem, Ohio, whipped a boy quite severely for persistent disobedience. She was arrested for assault and battery, but the grand jury failed to find a bill against her, and the case was dismissed. The affair caused much public excitement, and at the school election, which occurred soon after, "anti-corporal punishment" candidates were run against the regular nominees, who had sustained the teacher, and were elected. The board then passed a rule limiting and conditioning the use of the rod, but not wholly forbidding it. The anti-rod clamor had, however, caused the pupils to feel, and some to boast, that the teachers dare not touch them, and the spirit of disobedience and insubordination awakened made it difficult to maintain order in the schools. The matter recently culminated in a brutal assault upon the superintendent by three large boys who had been suspended from school for disorderly conduct. Being ordered to leave the superintendent's office, they insolently refused, and, arming themselves with chairs, made a desperate attack on the superintendent, and also on one of the teachers, who came to his assistance. We need not add that "moral suasion" is at a discount in Salem just now. There is a fair prospect that the mischief, resulting from last year's clamor, may be corrected.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

GEORGIA.—We have at last entered upon the work of public education, and we hope soon to see an efficient system of public schools in successful operation throughout this great State. The law passed by our last Legislature is not, in all respects, what we would have, but it will do very well to begin with; we can remedy its defects as they become more apparent. This law provides for a State Board of Education, consisting of the State School Commissioner, the Governor, Attorney-General, Secretary of State, and Comptroller-General; for a County Board of Education, elected by the people; and for Trustees in each school district, who shall also be chosen by the people. The county board elects the county superintendent, who is ex-officio secretary of this board. The state board prescribes the text-books used, but the law provides that the Bible shall not be excluded from the schools. There shall be separate schools for white and colored, with equal provision in all respects. In the sparsely settled portions of the State, where there is not a sufficient number of children to support a school, the law provides for ambulatory schools. Two or three adjoining districts may employ the same teacher, each in its turn for three or four months, thus enjoying the advantages of a school for a portion of the year, and sustaining a good teacher with a full salary. There is to be no local tax except for school houses, the districts being required to provide these. The state appropriation is to be sufficient to carry on the schools for at least *three months* of the year, and is made up from the poll tax, some specific taxes on the sale of liquors, shows, exhibi-

tions, etc., one-half the net proceeds of the state railroad, together with such additional tax as the State Board of Education may find necessary.

There are two serious defects in the law, first in neglecting to provide for local taxation, and secondly, in not permitting sufficient freedom in the matter of text-books. The people would take more interest in the schools, and the system would develop more efficiently and more rapidly if the state appropriation were distributed to the several counties on condition that the counties levy a tax equal in amount to the state appropriation. This was a feature of the plan recommended by the teachers' association of this State more than a year ago. From the one extreme of allowing the teachers to determine the books used in our schools, as has been the case pretty generally heretofore, our legislators last winter went to the other extreme of requiring state uniformity. Perhaps the extreme in that direction would be uniformity of text-books in all the states of the country. Our wisest teachers here think that the true mean on this question is to leave the selection of books with the county boards of education.

We have had for several years good public schools in Savannah and Columbus, and Atlanta, Augusta, and Macon will probably organize good school systems within a few months under the new law. We have throughout our State good schools and an excellent band of teachers; but they are generally accessible to those only who are able to pay high rates of tuition. The consequence is, that outside of the cities where there are public schools, but little more than half the children of the community are receiving an education. This state of things we hope will soon be changed in spite of all hindrances.

Our State Teachers' Association will meet in Columbus on Tuesday, May 2d, and will have a three days' session. Our meetings for the last two or three years have been increasing in interest. The citizens of Columbus kindly offer their hospitalities to all members of the Association, as did the people of Savannah last year. We are anticipating a pleasant meeting. B. M.

MISSISSIPPI.—The *Educational Journal* makes an encouraging exhibit of the progress of the new school system. It is believed that schools are now in operation in every county. The *Journal* says: "We doubt whether any State in the Union, North or South, has done as well in the same length of time, even with less opposition or discouragement. Indeed, the most hopeful friend of the new system did not look forward to such grand results within so short a time from its inauguration; and, if we can judge of the future by what has already been accomplished, we may, in advance, pronounce public education an assured and brilliant success in Mississippi." Supt. Hasie, of Scott county, reports good progress in the building of temporary school houses. The citizens are rendering liberal assistance.

EASTERN STATES.

NEW JERSEY.—The sixteenth annual report of the State Normal School at Trenton attests the continued prosperity and success of this institution. The whole number of pupils enrolled the past year in the Normal School proper was 292, only 36 being men; in the Model School, 563; and in the Farnum Preparatory School, 281—making a total of 1,136. The average number belonging to the Normal School during the year was 165; to the Model School, 326; to the Farnum Preparatory School, 180. A noteworthy and suggestive fact is the large increase in the number of pupils who complete the course, the increase of annual graduates being from about fifteen to fifty. This result is doubtless due, in part, to better and cheaper facilities for boarding, now provided by the large boarding halls under the control

of the trustees, but it also shows the popularity of the course of instruction and t general management of the institution. It seems from the report that the Mod School has been a paying department for many years. Its surplus earnings ha yielded some $32,000, which have been used by the State in paying for the buildin and grounds, now valued at $165,000.——We regret to add that Dr. Hart has r signed his position as principal. In accepting his resignation the trustees express in strong terms, their appreciation of his services. Mr. Johnson, late principal the Newark High School, has been appointed his successor.

CONNECTICUT.—The *School Journal* for March has a cheering editorial relating school progress in this State. The change in five years is declared to be "marv ous." The odious rate-bill system has been abolished, and "buried beyond the ho of resurrection"; school terms and school attendance have both been largely i creased; both political parties are committed by their platforms to the policy of ed cational progress; and free schools were never so fully appreciated and heartily i dorsed by the people. The progress of the State Normal School has passed fr good to "better", and the end is not yet reached. A grand rally was held at N Britain, March 9th, and a movement in favor of compulsory education was inaug rated. The meeting was addressed by Hon. Henry M. Cleveland, agent of the St Board of Education, and others, and much enthusiasm was awakened.

NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

ILLINOIS.—The biennial report of Superintendent Bateman is one of the abl documents of the kind, which we have ever read. It grapples with the live questi which underlie the progress of the school system of the State, and their discuss shows a great familiarity with practical details and a clear grasp of fundamer principles. Among the topics exhaustively discussed, is the hobby of a "State U formity of Text-Books." He argues that such uniformity is not practicable; tha is not desirable in itself; that it is injurious in its general effect; that it places great a responsibility in the hands of one man or a single board; and that it is expensive, as in practice it actually increases the cost of school books to the peo He urges that the duty of selecting and adopting books should be left to local bos of education.——We learn from the report that the number of youth in the Stat school age (between 6 and 21) is 862,624; number of scholars enrolled, 652,7 average number in daily attendance, 339,540; number of months schools were s tained, 6.7; number of teachers employed, 20,081; number of free schools, 11,0 The receipts in 1870, not including the balance of 1869, were $7,009,721, and expenditures were $6,881,538. The record of the State's work in the direction of professional training of her teachers, is a proud one, and, as a Buckeye, we rea with shame. In addition to the two great State Normal Universities (the second soon to be opened on a grand scale), the law provides for county normal schools, t two, Cook county and Peoria county, are established and in successful operati ——The last annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held at Decat Dec. 27–29, was not so largely attended as several previous meetings, but the sess was no less profitable. The experiment of dividing into sections was tried with s cess. The discussion of the subject of truancy revealed a strong and almost uns mous sentiment against compulsory education, and a divided opinion respecting tru laws.

INDIANA.—The perusal of Superintendent Hobbs's report for 1870 occasions a d regret that so earnest and capable an officer is displaced at the close of his first ter

just when he has acquired the necessary experience. Mr. Hobbs entered upon his official duties with a zeal and devotion worthy of all praise, and he must retire from the office comforted by the evidence that the school system has made great progress under his administration, and that he leaves it at a much higher point of efficiency than it has ever before attained,——We learn from the report that the number of youth in the State between 6 and 21, is 612,089; number of pupils enrolled in the schools, 462,527; average number in daily attendance, 290,989; average number of days schools were in session, 97; number of teachers employed, 11,826. The invested school fund of the State now amounts to $8,575,047.49, and yields an annual revenue of about $400,000. The report favors compulsory education. The State Normal School at Terre Haute is represented to be in a prosperous condition.—— The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association was held in Terre Haute, Dec. 27-29, 1870, but we find nothing in the *School Journal* respecting the attendance or success. The Association recommended several important amendments to the school law, including one making the county examiner a county school superintendent with adequate pay, and another giving cities and towns authority to examine and certificate teachers for their graded schools.——Hon. Milton B. Hopkins succeeded Mr. Hobbs as State Superintendent of Public Instruction on the 15th of March.

Ohio.—The annual meetings of the Ohio Superintendents' Association, the Ohio Teachers' Association, and the Ohio College Association will be held respectively at Sandusky City, Ohio, July 4th, July 5th and 6th, and July 7th. The principal topics to be considered by the Ohio Teachers' Association, are the wants of ungraded schools, compulsory education, and methods of teaching vocal music in public schools. The annual address will be delivered by Rev. A. D. Mayo, of Cincinnati.

Cincinnati University.—The committee appointed to report a plan of organizing this institution, has submitted a carefully considered report. It is proposed to make the university course begin where the high-school course shall end, and that the latter be made to comprise, in extent and thoroughness, the course assigned in our best colleges to the freshman year, thus preparing the student to enter upon optional courses. This will make the educational system of the city a unit. It is recommended that the university be divided into ten departments or schools, and that each be placed primarily in charge of one professor, who shall be responsible for the instruction and have the direction of all assistants assigned to him. The student is to have the liberty of selecting those departments of study which he may wish to pursue. It is further recommended that as many of the schools, except Law and Medicine, as the present income of the University will provide with a chief professor each, be opened the coming autumn, and that the others be opened as rapidly as possible. The full plan is wisely left for time and experience to perfect. The report was written by Hon. J. D. Cox, chairman of the committee, and is the result of a thorough investigation of the whole subject.

Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association.—The meeting held in Cleveland, Saturday, March 11th, was attended by over two hundred teachers, most of whom were connected with the Cleveland schools. The smaller cities and towns of the Reserve were also well represented. Miss Ella J. Merrill, of the Sheldon School, under the supervision of Mr. Forbes, presented a primary class that had been taught to read the script before the print characters—a practice common in Germany. The exercise gave rise to a spirited discussion, participated in by Messrs. Rickoff and Forbes of Cleveland, Thompson and Findley of Akron, School Commissioner Henkle, and President Harvey. The plan was generally approved. Supt. Findley, of Akron, opened a discussion on English grammar, urging that its study should be

introduced at least two years later than at present, and that it should be preceded by a thorough course in composition. The discussion was participated in by Messrs. Rickoff, James, and Ford, of Cleveland, Johnson of Orwell, Haywood of East Cleveland, President Harvey, and School Commissioner Henkle. Several of the speakers favored even a more radical change than the one suggested by Mr. Findley. Following the plan inaugurated at Akron, refreshments, including tea and coffee, were served at noon in the high-school building. The afternoon session was devoted to the reading of a pointed essay in favor of compulsory education, by Miss Keeler, of Cleveland, and an address by School Commissioner Henkle, explanatory of the school bill now before the General Assembly. A committee was appointed to report a plan for holding the next normal institute, and the Association adjourned to meet in Ravenna the second Saturday of May.

CENTRAL OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The meeting of this Association, held in Columbus, March 4th, was not largely attended, but the exercises were interesting and important. Supt. Dasher, of Groveport, read a good paper on the value of conversation to the teacher, which was discussed by Messrs. Vaile, Mitchell, Henkle, Sullivant, Crow, and Miss Harmon of Columbus, and by Messrs. Campbell of Delaware, and Snyder, of Reynoldsburg. Supt. Campbell, of Delaware, next read an interesting paper on the "Dangers of Radicalism", which was discussed by Messrs. Sullivant, Waring, Mendenhall, Humphreys, Crow, and Henkle, of Columbus. Mr. Dougherty, of Galion, read a paper on "Apparatus and Experiments"—an earnest plea for more practical scientific instruction in our high schools. The officers elected for the ensuing year are: J. C. Hartzler, Galion, president; Mr. Snyder, Reynoldsburg, vice-president; Miss Mary Wirth, Columbus, secretary; and Messrs. Mendenhall, Campbell, and Welsh, executive committee. The next meeting will be held the first Saturday in June.

WESTERN STATES.

KANSAS.—The State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting at Leavenworth, Dec. 27–29. The attendance was large (the number of teachers present being full 150), and the exercises were able, interesting, and practical. The general testimony is that the meeting was the most successful yet held by the Association. A paper on the grading of country schools elicited a spirited discussion, which resulted in the appointment of a committee to prepare a bill, establishing the township system, for the consideration of the Legislature. A bill creating a State Board of Examiners was referred to a committee to revise and present to the Legislature. A resolution by W. R. Spooner, formerly of Ohio, to amend the bill by adding to the common branches algebra, geometry, United States Constitution, natural philosophy, and chemistry, was voted down. A resolution favoring compulsory education, was adopted by a majority of nine votes. Newspapers were requested to devote space in each issue to educational affairs. A resolution recommending the NATIONAL TEACHER was unanimously adopted.

MISSOURI.—An amendment to the school law, which passed the lower house in February, limits the local tax to sustain the schools in any sub-district *to one-half of one per cent.*, and it further provides that the schools shall not be continued more than six months—an unnecessary limitation, we should think, unless schools can be sustained in Missouri without money. Both the *Journal* and the *Review* regard the proposed amendment as well-nigh ruinous to the schools. We hope that this great State will devise liberal things for the progress and success of her highest interest—the free education of her children.

BOOK NOTICES.

ANNUAL REPORT of the Ohio Commissioner of Railways and Telegraphs for the year 1870. Volume I. By GEORGE B. WRIGHT, Commissioner.

The meed of "well done" is awarded to a public officer who faithfully discharges the duties of his office as defined by law and exacted by his official oath. But in nearly every official position, not merely clerical, the better part of an officer's service may lie outside of both the law and his oath; and it is by the faithful rendering of such service that an officer truly magnifies his office. The fine volume before us is an illustration of this principle. It is the result of months of super-official labor, undertaken in the interest of the people and in anticipation of the coming irrepressible conflict between them and the great soulless corporations which control the highways of the country. When that conflict comes, such volumes as this will be the people's arsenals. The work contains the provisions of the Constitution relative to corporations; all laws now in force or affecting the rights or legal status of railroad corporations, with notes of court decisions; the original special charters of all Ohio Railroad Companies, with all acts affecting their organic rights, duties, and liabilities, and with abstracts of all changes made by sales, reorganizations, leases, and consolidations, and with abstracts of the laws of other States governing consolidated companies controlling roads within Ohio. It also contains abstracts of all special acts, not accepted by companies, and of acts conferring authority on counties, cities, etc., to subscribe to stock, etc., etc. In brief, it is a complete legal history of the railroad companies of Ohio, and its preparation has involved an amount of research and labor, which alike honors the Commissioner and the public service.

FIRST LESSONS IN COMPOSITON. By JOHN S. HART, LL.D., Author of "Composition and Rhetoric", etc. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother. 1871.

One of the assured reforms in school instruction is the preceding of the study of technical grammar by a progressive course of training in sentence-making and composition—in the use of language. This little work is an intelligent attempt to meet this new demand of educational progress. It presents an admirable series of exercises in composition, so arranged as to lead the pupil by natural steps to the principles of grammar. We would not, however, call these exercises "*first* lessons", since they involve too much of analysis and logic to be adapted to the youngest class of pupils. The true place of the book in a course of instruction, as it seems to us, is the last two years preceding the study of technical grammar. A part of the series may be given earlier, but not systematically as here presented. We heartily welcome this work, and we hope it may have a wide trial in our schools.

A SHORTER COURSE IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR. By SIMON KERL, Author of a Series of English Grammars. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

We have lost confidence in our ability to decide upon the merits of a text-book in English grammar. We once had definite views on this subject, but so great is the conflict of opinion among teachers and authors, that we are forced to re-examine our position. We can, however, say of this new grammar that it merits a careful examination. It not only claims to present a new system, "more natural, more simple, and more practical", but *shorter*. A characteristic feature of the course is the union of syntax and etymology—of analysis and parsing. We have long advocated this, and we are still inclined to the belief that it is the true plan. We are glad to find that the course is not shortened by abridging the practical drills,—the illustrations, examples, and exercises,—thus making it a bald outline.

THE SCHOOL FESTIVAL is a beautiful little magazine filled with original dialogues, recitations, "action songs", etc., for school exhibitions, festivals, concerts, and other public occasions. It admirably meets the demand in day schools and Sabbath schools for "something for the children to speak." It is edited by Alfred L. Sewell, formerly editor of the *Little Corporal*, and Mrs. M. B. C. Slade, of Fall River, Mass., a popular writer of school exercises. Price 50 cts. a year. Alfred L. Sewell & Co., Chicago, Publishers.

THE HERALD OF HEALTH richly deserves its increasing prosperity. It has a live editor and a fine corps of contributors, including several of the most popular writers in the country. Its specialty is physical culture, but it also discusses educational and moral subjects—whatever, indeed, relates to a higher type of manhood. It is published by Wood & Holbrook, New York. Price $2 a year.

THE SUNDAY-SCHOOL WORKMAN (New York) is an eight-page paper, devoted to the improvement of Sabbath school instruction and management. It is edited by Rev. Alfred Taylor, which is an assurance that it is sensible and valuable. Each number contains one of the "National Series" of lessons and also one of the "Berean Series", with notes and "helps" for teachers and scholars. Subscription price, $1.50 a year.

THE WESTERN EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, which most of last year fell below its claims, passed into new hands last October, and is now well edited and conducted. Each number, of thirty-two large octavo pages, double-column, is filled with original articles of merit. Considerable prominence is given to book reviews, which are ably and, as we think, honestly written. The *Review* is published by E. F. Hobart & Co., St. Louis. Price $1.50.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

BARNARD'S ORAL TRAINING. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

FITZ'S CHANT AND HYMN SERVICE FOR SCHOOLS. D. C. Colesworthy, Boston.

FITZ'S NATIONAL SCHOOL SONGSTER and SCHOOL DRAMA. D. C. Colesworthy, Boston.

BARTHOLOMEW'S DRAWING BOOK. No. 6. Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co., New York.

PAMPHLETS AND REPORTS.

The Professional Education of Teachers. By Prof. J. Bengel, Ypsilanti, Mich.

Seventeenth Annual Report of the Schools of Maine. W. Johnson, Supt.

Twenty-first Annual Report of the Colored Schools of Cincinnati. Wm. H. Parham, Superintendent.

Annual School Report of New Jersey. Ellis A. Apgar, Supt.

First Biennial Report of the Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Nevada. A. N. Fisher, Supt.

Report on Schools of Technical Science in the United States. Hunter, Rose & Co., Toronto.

Report on the Reorganization of the University of Missouri. Daniel Read, D.D., President.

The Annual of the Iowa Agricultural College. A. S. Welch, President.

Annual School Report of the Town of Amherst, Mass. H. L. Read, Supt.

Annual Report of the Ohio Institution for the Education of the Blind. George L. Smead, Supt.

Catalogue of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo. W. G. Eliot, D.D., Chancellor.

Catalogue of Lafayette College, Easton, Pa. Wm. C. Cattell, D.D., President.

THE

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STATE UNIFORMITY OF TEXT-BOOKS.

BY NEWTON BATEMAN.*

In the school law of Illinois, passed February 15, 1855, there was a provision looking to uniformity of text-books, in all the public schools of the State. It was therein made the imperative duty of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction to "recommend the most approved text-books, maps, charts, and apparatus, and uniformity in the use of the same," and, subsequently, the question came before the General Assembly whether there should be such legislation as would make it obligatory upon all boards of directors to adopt and use the books and articles so recommended, and no others, as a condition of receiving the public funds.

I, at that time, earnestly dissented from that provision of the the law, for the following reasons, among others:

1. It did not seem to me that it would be practicable to carry out and enforce such a requirement. Innumerable cases would occur where parties could not or would not recognize and conform to the prescribed list, and then it would be necessary either to ignore such evasions of the law, or to withhold the public funds from districts and teachers, upon grounds which could not be sustained either in sound argument or at the bar of public opinion. Hence would arise vexatious controversies, and the temper of the people would be soured toward the school system;

*State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Illinois.

for it would be vain to try to convince men that it is right to cut off an otherwise legal, prosperous, and efficient school from its share of the public fund, for no better reason than that the text-books used were chosen by the local boards of directors, or by their teachers, instead of by the State Superintendent, or other state authority.

2. Compulsory uniformity throughout the State did not seem desirable, even if practicable. In the first place, the tendency to routine, to unbroken sameness, is already very great in our public schools. This is, in fact, though to a great degree inevitable, one of the greatest evils incident to any general system of public education. * * * Now the effect of a compulsory uniformity of text-books throughout the State would be to enhance this evil, whereas it is desirable to lessen it as much as possible. * * * An occasional and judicious change of text-books in a public school is not, in itself, to be deprecated. On the contrary, it is often beneficial, not only when the change is from poor books to good ones, or from good ones to better ones, but for the mere sake of the change itself. There often comes a time in the history of a school when it is quite evident that the substitution of a fresh new book for a long used old one, would greatly promote the interest of the scholars and the good of the school. In such cases, no higher power should stand in the way; the directors should be free to do what the welfare of their own particular school requires. The only important question to be considered in such instances is that of expense. If the parents are generally able and willing to procure the new book, there should be no official obstacle to their doing so.

There are, of course, proper limitations to this view of the subject. Changes of text-books should not be frequent. Books should be adopted cautiously and wisely, and always upon their merits alone; and, when so selected, they should be retained, against all the arts, eloquence, and entreaties of outside parties, till they have been fully tested,—till they have subserved their best purposes and done the most service and good of which they are capable, or till the consideration already alluded to, the manifest welfare of the school, requires a change. This, as a general rule, will take a term of years. I do not think the instances are many where a good book, once introduced into a public school, and procured by all the pupils fitted to study it, should be changed after a less trial than from three to five years. In the great majority of cases, such a book should be retained for a much longer

period than that; while now and then we find a book of such rare excellence and perennial attractiveness and adaptation, that there seems no limit to the period of its usefulness, and of course no perceived reason why it should ever be set aside.

But the point is, that when the time does arrive when it is manifest to those qualified to judge, that a particular book should be displaced by another, the power to make the substitution should not be contingent upon the will of the State Superintendent, or of any other officer or person, or of any board, outside of the community or school whose interests are immediately concerned. And in like manner, it should not be within the power of any outside official or board to require a book to be changed, which those most interested and best qualified to judge desire still to retain. The *welfare of the individual schools*, as estimated by their appointed guardians, in the exercise of their best judgment aided by the wisest available counsels,—this, and this only, should be permitted to govern the question of changing or retaining a particular text-book. The action of the local school boards in the matter should be free alike from the interference of state functionaries, from the clashing interests of publishers, and from the importunities of their agents.

New text-books, when changes are found to be desirable, should be introduced gradually; not a simultaneous change of the whole list, but one at a time—now of an arithmetic, then of a grammar, and the next year of a geography, and so on, as new classes are formed, so that the expense may fall as lightly and as evenly as possible upon the parents, and the general course of instruction in the school may not be suddenly changed. If these rules are observed, every school will be kept substantially abreast of all real improvements in text-books, while the great evil of frequent and violent changes, and consequent irritation and burdensome expense to the people, will be avoided. It is only when unnecessary and arbitrary changes are made—changes not required for the welfare and efficiency of the school, but made under the pressure of outside and it may be mercenary influences, that, as a general rule, the people are dissatisfied, and complain of the expense to which they are needlessly subjected. Against all such changes of text-books it is impossible to remonstrate too vehemently.

3. Again: The law of 1855 in relation to state uniformity of text-books, maps, charts, etc., was objected to for the reason that if enforced and carried out, it would seriously impair the *aggre-*

gate efficiency and power of teachers, and thus be an injury rather than a benefit to the schools of the State, as a whole. This would be less obvious if the great body of our teachers were so thoroughly the masters of the subjects taught as to be, on their own account, independent of text-books, able to teach equally well either with them or without them. Though even then the objection to state uniformity would not be without force, as will presently be shown. But when it is considered how dependent most teachers are upon the text-books they use, upon the *ipsissima verba* of their authors, the correctness of the position assumed will be very apparent. In all kinds of labor, the ways and means, the instrumentalities and methods employed, are manifold and various, almost as much so as the characteristics of the laborers themselves. Hardly any two farmers, mechanics, merchants, manufacturers, artists, or workers in any other pursuit, do the same thing in precisely the same way. Numberless familiar illustrations of this will readily occur to every one; I need not give them. Each may do the thing quite as rapidly and as well as the other, though each does it after his own manner; and to require either to adopt the method of the other, would be absurd in itself, and ensure loss both in the quality of the work done, and in the time required for its performance. As well oblige every lady to use the same kind of a sewing machine, or every farmer the same kind of a plow or reaper. The end being the same, let each attain it in the way that is best for himself—this is the common sense of it, and the practice which obtains in all the industrial pursuits of life.

The same principles apply in the use of text-books, and in the means and methods of teaching, explaining, and illustrating different sciences and branches of study in common schools. Reading, spelling, arithmetic, geography, history, penmanship, grammar, algebra, the classics, the natural sciences, and whatever else is taught in the public schools—how differently are they presented, taught, and illustrated by different teachers. What diversity in the chosen sequence of subjects, and topics, and rules; in the order and methods of development; in the aids and instrumentalities employed; in the relative prominence of this or that principle, in the manner of study, investigation, instruction, and recitation. As teachers are generally consulted, and should always be, in selecting text-books for the schools of which they are to have the charge, when such selections have not already been made, they can suggest authors whose methods ar

most in harmony with their own habits of thinking and teaching, and which they can use most effectively; and, when changes are made, the same end can be kept in view. In this way, by a rational eclecticism, by allowing teachers to use, so far as practicable, those books which they know by experience to be best adapted to their own methods of investigation and instruction, and with which they can do the best work, it comes to pass that, as a general rule, each teacher is in a condition to achieve the utmost of which he is capable—he is equipped with implements which he knows best how to use.

Under a system of compulsory state uniformity (such uniformity could not be unless compulsory), these advantages would be sacrificed. Instead of the benefits accruing from the gathered excellencies of all the best school books of the country, reinforced by the power derived from allowing each teacher to use those best adapted to his own methods, there would be one stereotyped series in all the schools of like grade in the State, with no election of authors and methods to suit the varying powers, preferences, and modes of instruction among teachers. Even though the prescribed list were, upon the whole, the best that could be selected, it would not and could not be the best for all teachers, and the aggregate teaching power in the school-rooms of the State would be inevitably diminished. If, for example, the "word-method" is preferred in teaching little ones to read, why should it not be allowed? * * * On the one plan, all the best school books in the country are made to yield their best fruits, as before remarked; while on the other, a small part only of such best books are caused to subserve the public interest. These benefits can not be *fully* realized of course without a good degree of *permanency* on the part of teachers, but the tendency is more and more in that direction, especially in large towns and cities; and the advantages are largely in favor of diversity in the State at large, and of the freedom of the local districts, even without taking the element of the permanency of teachers into the account at all.

4. The law of 1855 in relation to text-books seemed objectionable, also, for the reason that it placed in the hands of one man, or of a single board, the enormous responsibility of deciding what school books should be used in all the public schools of a great State. It seemed to me a responsibility which could not safely be devolved upon any one man, however honest, intelligent, and capable, while the consequences of intrusting it to an

unintelligent or untrustworthy person, would be deplorable, indeed. In the case of a competent and conscientious State Superintendent, the duty of selection would involve a careful and even somewhat critical personal examination of all the reputable text-books, maps, charts, etc., published in the country, as the ground of final judgment. Not to speak of the time and labor that this would require (no competent and honest person would engage to accomplish it in less than twelve months), what assurance could there be that the list, as finally matured, would, after all, embrace the best books—that it would not contain some of secondary worth? The officer would have his own preferences, his own standard of comparison, his own rules of judgment, possibly his own prejudices, all of which would affect the result, more or less. And the case would not be materially altered, should he avail himself of the assistance of other scholars and experts. It would still remain morally certain, that the forced use of his selections would impair and not promote the efficiency of many schools in the State. In the case of an incompetent or dishonest superintendent, or board, the list, if made up by such officer or board, would be little better than guess-work, and might be even worse than that, and, if committed to others, a door would be open for the most dangerous influences. The fact is, experienced professional teachers and intelligent boards of education are quite equal to the duty of selecting text-books for their own schools, without even the advice of any state authorities; and as to dictation from such a quarter, they would be likely to regard it as an indignity.

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5. It also seemed evident that the proposed law requiring uniformity of books throughout the State, would fail to accomplish one of the main objects professedly in view—a diminution of expense. On the contrary, I thought it was apparently demonstrable that, in addition to all the other weighty objections, it would, in the long run, inevitably increase, not lessen, the aggregate cost of school books to the people of the State.

Suppose such a law were in force to-day, what would be the effect? All the books now in use, and not in the prescribed list, must be laid aside and others purchased in their places. This would be necessary in order to launch the new system—to inaugurate uniformity. Now this sinkage at the outset, the money value of the books thus discarded to make room for those officially prescribed, would be enormous, not less than an average of

two or three dollars to every family in the State. It would take near half a million of dollars to re-stock the public schools of the State with the text-books, maps, charts, apparatus, etc., under the provisions of such a law, after making due allowance for all that might chance to be retained in the official list—so great is the diversity of books now in general use. And in addition to the immense expense, at the outset, of placing the official list in the schools, it can not be doubted that the subsequent cost of the books would be enhanced in consequence of the virtual monopoly of sales in the State, that would be enjoyed by the publishers whose books were chosen. For experience has shown all stipulations, contracts, and guarantees to be but cobwebs against the devices and greed of persons invested by law with exclusive privileges and monopolies. With no competition, it is morally certain that sooner or later the people would be compelled, directly or indirectly, to pay more for their school books, and thus that uniformity, which was established at a dead loss of hundreds of thousands of dollars, would impose, for its maintenance, an additional and continued tribute upon the tax payers. Over against the evils which, it is admitted, are connected with the unlimited diversity of text-books, must be set the undeniable fact of a reduction of average cost, in consequence of the intense and sharp competition.

There is still another element to be considered in connection with the question of expense under the state uniformity plan. We have seen what it would cost to get the scheme started, and to keep it in operation afterward, in the form of monopoly prices, instead of competition prices of books. But what assurance, it remains to ask, would there be that the initial sinkage of half a million of dollars, more or less, would not have to be duplicated, wholly or partly, with the incoming of every new State Superintendent, or the appointment of each new board of examiners? Is it probable that any two men who might chance to hold that office, would agree as to the books that should be included in the state list? Is there any guarantee that many, if not all, of those chosen by a given superintendent or board, would not be discarded and thrown out by his or its immediate successor? Is it difficult to see what powerful incentives might and would be brought to bear upon him to induce him to revise the lists of his predecessor in office? And is it not plain, finally, that for every change so made, the dead loss of the discarded books, and the expense of procuring the new ones, would have to be incurred,

and repeated, with every change of administration? The wl thing is believed to be bad—unfavorable to the efficiency of schools, unjust and obnoxious to teachers, an unwise tempta of official integrity, and the very opposite of economical.

If it be said that the law itself might provide that the] scribed list of books should not be changed for a definite ter years, the answer is, that while this would only partially a the evil in question, since it would leave the monopoly untouc and even strengthed and established, a still greater evil mi thereby be entailed upon the school system. It would *perpet* the mischief of any poor or bad books in the state list, by priving even the state authorities of the power to remove th And it would increase the depressing influence of the wh scheme upon authors, since it would peremptorily adjourn, the prescribed term of years, their chance of obtaining reco tion of their labors. The inevitable diminution of effort, less ing of incentive, and palsying of enterprise and inspira among school-book authors and compilers, are not among least of the evils incident to gigantic text-book monopolies, trenched in state law, and clinched and perpetuated by statut provisions against revision or change for a term of years. If have, as I think is the fact, the best school books in the wo the result has been secured, in large degree, by our general emption from such monopolies, and the consequent freedon competition among publishers, and the powerful incentive strive for the greatest possible excellence, which are t brought to bear and left free to operate upon all those enga in the writing and preparing of books for public schools.

Such were some of the objections that I felt constrained urge, fifteen years ago, to the plan of compulsory uniformit text-books throughout the State, the initial step towards wh was taken in the school law of 1855. * * * I was sustai in those views by the great body of the teachers and friend education in the State, and a measure which could hardly h failed to injure the school system, in its very infancy, was rested. The next Legislature not only declined to favor com sory uniformity, but also wisely repealed the provision mak it obligatory upon the State Superintendent even to recomm a state list of school books. Experience and observation h but confirmed the judgment then formed on that subject. opinion is still confidently entertained that state uniform enforced by law, is impracticable and undesirable, and that

such power should ever be committed to the hands of any public officer. * * *

It is, therefore, hoped that the present plan, whereby boards of education and of school directors are left free to determine, each for itself, what text-books shall be used in the respective schools under their charge, will not be disturbed. True, there are many evils and disadvantages connected with it, but none so great as those that would grow out of the creation of gigantic school-book monopolies, based upon the exercise of arbitrary and almost irresponsible official prerogatives and powers. It is best and safest to leave such matters as close to the people as possible. A wholesome sense of responsibility is thus kept alive—errors and abuses are more quickly and surely detected and corrected.

There must, of course, be uniformity in the schools of particular districts, towns, and cities. This is indispensably essential. Boards of education in cities and towns, and of directors in common school districts under the general law, have full power, and it is their imperative duty, to prescribe and enforce systematic and uniform courses of study, and the uniform use of such text-books as they may select and designate.—*Biennial Report for* 1869–1870.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—No. IV.

BY GEORGE S. ORMSBY.

When the student is parsing the words of a Latin sentence, he is conscious that his mind is dealing chiefly with the forms of words and the relations of thought suggested by these forms; and, in some cases, form alone is the subject of contemplation. On the other hand, when he is parsing the words of an English sentence, he is conscious that his mind is dealing chiefly with the uses of words, and the thoughts suggested by these uses. The English language is a language of utility.

Objects, attributes, and relations are the materials of thought. Words are used to represent the objects and attributes thought about, and what is thought of them. The thought itself depends upon the materials. It is the soul of the sentence; and the sentence, which is but the body, conforms to the form of the spirit—the thought; and the words comprising it are used to represent

not only the thoughts, but the materials with which it has to do—objects, attributes, and relations. There are three things—a triunity—to be considered in the disposition of every English sentence, viz: the materials of thought, the thought itself, and the words representing these materials and their relations.

Take the sentence, *Good boys learn.* The materials are the objects represented by the word *boys*, the quality represented by the word *good*, and the action represented by the word *learn*. This quality and action are called attributes. The thought itself is simply a mental state, a mental assertion that such an action is true of such objects. The words constitute the audible or the visible representation of thought, and the audible or visible representation of the things thought about—the materials of thought.

Translate this sentence into Latin—*Boni pueri discunt.* Here we have precisely the same three things as in the English sentence: the materials, the thought, the words. But the process of thought in its grammatical disposition is quite different. We notice that *Boni* has the masculine, plural, nominative form; that it agrees with *pueri*, which has the same form; that *discunt* has the form of the indicative present, and also of the third person, plural, agreeing with *pueri*. Now the mental process here is simply a contemplation of the correspondence of forms of words and agreements.

In the grammatical disposition of the corresponding English sentence, the process of thought is and ought to be quite different. The word *good*, in the sentence, has no masculine, plural, or nominative form, but it has a *use*, and with its use we have to do in our English parsing.

What is its use? Is it to qualify, to describe, to limit the noun *boys?* Of seven authors now before me, one says, "It is used to express a quality of the noun *boys*"; another, "It is used to qualify the noun *boys*"; another, "It is used to describe the meaning of the noun *boys*"; and four others say, "It is used to qualify the meaning of the noun *boys*." But the word *good* is not used for any of these purposes; and any one, though unlearned in the science of grammar, will understand this, and perceive its use as well as the grammarian. This word *good* is used to indicate a quality of the persons boys—this and nothing more; and when we call it an adjective, tell its degree of comparison, name the noun to which it is joined, and tell its *use* in the sentence, we have parsed it: thus, good is an adjective, in the positive degree, it is joined to the noun *boys*, to indicate an attribute of the per-

sons boys. It will be seen here, that we begin with the word, and pass through the thought, to the object thought about. There is intelligence in every step. But how much wisdom has the child gained when he has learned to say, "Good is used to express a quality of the noun boys?" He has learned to say what is false, and has been taught to believe it true. The word *boys* is used to represent the chief subject of thought, and it occupies such a position in the sentence as will indicate this. Its *use* in the sentence indicates the chief subject of thought. *Learn* is a word used to represent an action, which is affirmed of this chief subject of thought,—an action which these good boys perform.

The point here attempted to be illustrated is, that in parsing the words in an English sentence, the first and chief attention must be given to the true uses of the words in that sentence. To do this successfully and profitably, the words, the thought, and the materials of the thought, must be kept constantly in mind.

Use indicates the general class to which any word belongs. And although it may not be improper to say, a noun is the name of an object; still it is better to say, a noun is a word *used* as the name of an object. It may be said that *gold* is a noun, but in the phrase, *Gold chain*, the word *gold* is an adjective. Its use indicates its meaning. The word *man* is called a noun, but in the sentence, *Man the guns*, the word *man* is a verb. Use alone determines the part of speech to which any word belongs. We see in this the great flexibility, beauty, and utility of the English language. A word can be transferred at pleasure from one part of speech to another, thus giving energy to thought without violating any grammatical rules. This is not true to any great extent in an inflected language.

May it not then be affirmed with truth, that, while the grammar of an inflected language has chiefly to do with forms, the grammar of the English language has chiefly to do with use? In a word, much that is indicated in an inflected language by form, or termination, is indicated in the English language by *use*.

This idea, fully comprehended and applied in definitions and forms of expression, would dispel much of the mist that now envelops the truth, in matters pertaining to English grammar.

As grammar was made after language, so ought it to be taught after language.—SPENCER.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.

The trouble is not that the English language is a "grammar less tongue"—a language without its laws,—but the failure o writers on English grammar to recognize the *fixed* laws of gen eral grammar, which are as applicable to our language as to th Latin and the Greek languages, after the philosophy of whic ours is largely modeled, and to apply them in sentence-making What are called "Rules of Syntax", are nothing more nor les than laws of language; and to teach a pupil "to speak and writ the English language correctly", is to instruct him how to fram sentences, whether spoken or written, in harmony with thes laws or "rules." These laws of syntax, if they are exhaustive may be divided into two classes:

1. Such rules as are based upon general grammar, and mus regulate the *logical* structure of every sentence, to make th thought, intended to be expressed, visible. The rules requir that there must be agreement between subject and predicat as to person and number. As the subject is *primal* in thought it should control the person and number of the predicate, an the rules say it does. Pronouns must harmonize with th nouns for which they are substitutes, and to which they refe as their antecedents, in gender, person, and number. The in *tegrality* of the simple sentence admits but one finite verb i it; every other verb in said sentence is infinite or "infinitive. Thus far I have specified what are the nature and scope of rule derived from general grammar—rules cognizable in the structur of sentences in all classic languages.

2. Such rules as are founded upon the idiomatic character of th English language. Ours has its peculiarites; such, for instanc as the form for the plural of nouns, possessive case of nouns forms affecting the termination of words, and the use of th preposition "to" as a verb-sign of infinity. Now there *is* rule with regard to the infinitive mode, whatever may be a prope regimen for the government of such verbs. If by governmen in syntax, we mean "the power which one word has over anothe in causing it to be in some particular mode, tense, number, c person", then the only question as to the government of the in finitive mode is, Does the preposition "to" give infinity to th verb? or does the predicate verb of the sentence exclude th other verbs of the sentence from a subjective condition? If th

ıner be true, then Gould Brown is correct in his coinage of a
e to govern the infinitive by the preposition "to." Without
pping to inquire, whether Mr. B.'s *diagnosis* of the philosophy
word-power, be true or false, I will undertake to say that all
)d writers and speakers of our language recognize the *form* of
: infinitive as correct, while no two writers on English gram-
r, from the days of Lindley Murray down, agree as to its gov-
ıment. Were I asked to say what these book-makers have
ided on this point, my answer would be, They have *decided* in
: rules which they parade in their books as a regiment of *war-*
: axioms, that the infinite mode *may be* governed by verbs,
uns, adjectives, participles, and pronouns—a statement that
y be true, but which, owing to obtuseness in me, I fail to un-
rstand, and therefore take it from the learned, *cum granulo*
lis.

I have referred to several of the rules of each class, but do not
end to give all. Enough, however, for my purpose. The dis-
ssion and defense of these take up so much of modern gram-
ırs, interlarded with critiques upon most predecessors, that the
ıdent fails to see the relation of these rules to the uses of gram-
ır. It was fifteen years after I began the study of grammar before
nade the discovery that rules of syntax *purport* to be the laws
at regulate spoken and written language. Stupid as *I* am, I
ve some fears that *many* have been as long coming to the light.
hat is the cause of this occultation? What comes between the
pil's brain-eyes and sentence-making? Verily, this stupid,
ck-saddle method of *sledging* into flesh and blood the unmean-
g dogmas of technical grammar. Eight or ten parts of speech
e *feruled* into a boy; then the real and factitious qualities of
ch part of speech, paradigms, rules, and exceptions, the latter
ten covering a wider sweep than the rule; finally, the farce is
mplete, when two or three years is wasted in word-parsing.
hat has the pupil learned by the passage "o'er this sea of
oubles"? To give the gender of *goose* and the unmistakable
assification of an *ass;*—this, and "nothing more." In talking,
: murders the King's English as before, and, in *writing*, it never
:urs to him that there is anything in a grammar-book that can
sist him. What if he does "parse" glibly, and can "conju-
ıte" all the verbs in Webster. Will he understand the philoso-
hy and art of sentence-making? Perhaps he is too young to
rasp the logic of a sentence from Phillips—a stanza from Milton
r Cowper. Then he fails to *parse* them, because he has not

studied either Sir Hamilton or Coppeé. Clark *started* his grammar where boys and girls ought to begin—at the *live sentence*. But the wheels of his chariot clog in the mazes of logic and rhetoric—and so the youngsters must "tarry at Jericho till their beards be grown."

But to be serious before I close, allow me to say, that there is more unnaturalness about our methods of teaching grammar than in aught else. Begin with the *child*. Teach it to correct obvious errors. Show what law of language [rule of syntax] said error violates. Teach it to construct plain sentences, and, first, simple sentences. Familiarize it with such laws of language as will be needed in forming sentences on a range with its understanding. By the time it is taught to construct all ordinary sentences, it will have a digested knowledge of the laws of language, general and specific, or idiomatic. But a friend asks, When would you allow James to study the grammar-book [the *philosophy* of language]—at fourteen or eighteen years of age? I answer, At an age when he can comprehend Upham, Alden, and Schuyler's Logic.

J. SHAW.

Bellefontaine, O.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

FRIEND WHITE: *More light* is wanted in this "neck of the woods" regarding a matter which, if I mistake not, has already been discussed, to some extent, in your journal. I refer to the methods of computing the *per cent. of attendance* in schools. It seems that there is not entire uniformity of practice in this matter among teachers and superintendents in different places. We of Wheeling arrive at our monthly per cent. of attendance by comparing the average daily attendance with the total enrollment, and the same rule is followed in a few other places. In the western cities generally, a different rule is adopted; namely, to compare the average daily attendance with the "average number belonging." The results obtained by these two methods differ widely. For instance, the Cincinnati Report for November shows—

Number pupils enrolled	24,705
" Average number belonging "	22,389
Average daily atttendance	21,422
Per cent. of attendance	95:7

It will at once be seen that this per cent. of attendance is found by comparing the average daily attendance with the "average number belonging"; whereas by comparing the average daily attendance with the number enrolled, we find the per cent. to be 86.7.

The Chicago Report for the same month shows—

Enrollment	30,727
"Average number belonging"	28,581
Average daily attendance	27,054
Per cent. of attendance	96.7

The per cent. is obtained by comparing the average daily attendance with the "average number belonging." By comparing the average daily attendance with the enrollment, the per cent. is shown to be but 88.

Our Wheeling Report for the same month shows—

Total enrollment	2,444
Average daily attendance	2,190
Per cent. of attendance	89.6

The per cent. is obtained by comparing the average attendance with the total enrollment.

From the foregoing, it will at once be seen that, for the month of November, a more regular attendance was secured in the Wheeling schools than in those of either Cincinnati or Chicago; and it may fairly be presumed that a just comparison of figures would make a like showing for any other month in the year. Yet the published reports are well calculated to convey to the casual reader a very different impression. By following the rule employed by Superintendents Hancock, Pickard, Harris, Tingley, and others, our Wheeling schools would show a per cent. of attendance from month to month well up to 100, instead of averaging only about 90, as is the case under our present rule of computation.

Now, Mr. Editor, are we at fault in our method? If so, our percentage reports do the Wheeling schools injustice, by placing the per cent. of attendance below that of the schools of many other places, in which there is not that regularity of attendance of which the schools of Wheeling can boast.

But the question recurs, Is our method at fault? If so, will you, Mr. Editor, who are supposed to be abundantly posted in all these matters, do us the favor to set us right? It may not be amiss to remark, in parenthesis, that should we be convinced that we have been all the while in the wrong in this matter, we

shall have the satisfaction of knowing that wiser heads than ours have fallen into the same blunder.

In throwing light upon the subject, you may not think it amiss, Mr. Editor, to define the technical phrase, "Average number belonging", which some, as you are aware, regard as *a cheat;* and, in order that the matter may be made explicit, I send a transcript from one of our school registers, showing the attendance of boys for the month of February, with our method of finding the average attendance, and the per cent. of attendance for the month. Now will you do us the favor to state what you regard as the "average number belonging", and give the precise process of finding it? Let us have light.

Truly yours, F. S. WILLIAMS.

WHEELING, 21*st March*, 1871.

JOTTINGS.

BY W. D. HENKLE, COLUMBUS, O.

1. *Telegraphy.* How should this word be pronounced? Worcester's Dictionary (1860) pronunces it "tĕl'e-graph-y", but Webster's (1864) and Latham's Todd's Johnson's pronounce it "te-lĕg'ra-phy." In neither of the works is it marked as a disputed word. "Te-lĕg'ra-phy" is undoubtedly the right pronunciation, as it is analogous to the pronunciation of *orthography, geography, topography, typography, phonography, biography, stenography, chronography, ethnography, cosmography, chirography, lexicography, lithography, hydrography, crystallography, autobiography, uranography, horography, aerography, adenography, anemography, angiography, astrography, autography, bibliography, cacography, chalcography, chorography, christianography, chromatography, cryptography, glossography, glyptography, petrography, hagiography, hierography, historiography, horologiography, ichnography, iconography, metallography, scenography, micrography, mimography, myography, nemography, monography, heliography, selenography, steganography, riderography, heterography, homography, enterography, phytography, psalmography, pseudography, stereography, xylography, zoögraphy, polygraphy, glyphography, brachygraphy, tachygraphy, calligraphy, etc.*

2. *Alpha Orionis.* This star is called "*Betelguese*" in "Dick's Sidereal Heavens", p. 23, "Burritt's Geography of the Heavens", p. 57, "Mitchell's Burritt's Geography of the Heavens", p. 73, "Mattison's Astronomy", p. 178, "Davis's Astronomy, p. 296, "McIntire's Astronomy", p. 136, "Riddle's Hutton's Recreations in Mathematics", p. 452, and "Zell's Encyclopædia and Dictionary", vol. I, p. 281; "*Betelgeuse*", in "Olmsted's School Astronomy", p. 259, "Rolfe and Gillet's Hand-book of the Stars", p. 162, "Lockyer's Astronomy", p. 16, "Hutton's Mathematical Dictionary", vol. I, p. 205, "Barlow's Mathematical Dictionary", "Steele's Fourteen Weeks in Astronomy", p. 251, and Guillemin's "The Heavens", p. 324; "*Betelgeuze*", in Chambers's Descriptive Astronomy", p. 707, and in "Ray's [Peabody's] Astronomy", p. 312; and "*Betelgeux*", in "De Morgan's Companion Map to the Stars", pp. 44, 45. Which is right?

3. *Normally.* This word is not found in either Worcester's or Webster's Quarto Dictionary.

4. *Photographer.* This word is not found in Webster's Dictionary, although it is in Worcester's.

5. *Daguerreotype*, or *Daguerrotype.* Which is right? The former is found in Webster's Dictionary, and the latter, in Worcester's; the former is a violation of the rule in reference to dropping the final *e* silent before a vowel, and yet it is not mentioned on p. lxvi, § 11, of Webster's Dictionary as an exception.

6. *Acreage.* This word is also an exception to the rule just referred to, but it is not given as such.

7. *Eighth.* There is a peculiarity in this word. Although *g* and *h* are silent, yet, before the aspirate *th*, there is heard the sound of *t* in the pronunciation. Eighth is pronounced *ātth*, and not *āth*.

8. *Gimbal.* Neither Worcester nor Webster gives this as a disputed word. The former pronounces the *g* like *j*, but the latter with *g* hard as in *gimlet*.

9. *G* before *e* and *i*. The ordinary rule that *g* has the sound of *j* before *e* and *i* has numerous exceptions. I suggest the following as one that has but few exceptions: Initial *g* has the hard sound in words of Indo-Germanic origin, but the soft sound (*j*) before *e* and *i* in words from the Greek, Latin, or Romance languages.

10. *Gee, haw.* Most persons would define these words by using the words *right* and *left* in the definitions. Sometimes *gee* means

turn to the left, and *haw, turn to the right.* This is the case England where the ox-driver walks on the right side of his tea of oxen. *Gee* means "turn to the *off-side* or *from* the driver and *haw* means "turn *toward* the driver."

11. *Tartarian* or *Tartarean.* Worcester defines *Tartarian* "r lating to Tartary, its language, or inhabitants", and *Tartarea* "hellish, infernal"; but Webster adopts the latter spelling f both of the words. Alfred Russel Wallace follows Worcest on p. 28 of his work on Natural Selection in the phrase "Tart rian deserts."

12. *Quinarian.* Wallace, p. 45, speaks of "the 'Circular a Quinarian System' of classification propounded by MacLea and developed by Swainson." Neither Worcester nor Webst gives the word.

13. *Alleghany, Allegheny, or Allegany?* Washington Irving, in l Life of Washington, always spells this word "*Allegany.*" Su is generally the spelling in the State of New York. In Penns vania it is generally spelled "*Allegheny*", and in Virginia a the Southern States, "*Alleghany.*" This diversity produces t following peculiarity on a map of Pennsylvania and New Yor The Alleghany River, near its source in Pennsylvania, is mark "*Allegheny*", then the bend of forty or fifty miles in New Yo is marked "*Allegany*", and the rest of it to its junction with t Monongahela River is again marked "*Allegheny.*" As nearly works on general geography, even when printed in New Yo and Pennsylvania, give the spelling "*Alleghany*", Dr. Thom humorously remarks that "the citizens of those States might, is believed, without any unmanly concession, or without t slightest abandonment of what is due to the dignity of soverei States, conform in this respect to the usage of the majority See *Lippincott's Gazetteer*, p. 58.

14. *Bouquet.* This word is frequently printed "*boquet*", spelling which is not even mentioned in either Webster's Worcester's Dictionary.

15. *Quota.* What number is this word? Higginson, whc English Grammar is so highly commended by Dean Alford in t preface to the second edition of his "*Plea for the Queen's English* calls it *plural*, giving *quotum* as the singular. He considers *quot* to be as much a double plural as *stratas* or *datas.* He say "*Quotas* and *stratas* are sometimes said by persons who ought know better." He gives no quotations, and omits any proof

is assertion. Although Worcester does not give *quotum* in his dictionary, yet it is given in Webster's, and M. Müller and the *Bibliotheca Sacra* are quoted as authority. *Quota* is given by oth Worcester and Webster as a singular, referring to the feminine singular of the Latin *quotus*, namely, *quota*, and not to the *euter* plural of *quotus*, *i. e.*, as the plural of the neuter singular *uotum*. The Latin feminine noun *pars* is said to be understood ith *quota*. The word is given in *Bailey's Dictionary*, 1759, vol I, nd in *Johnson's Quarto Dictionary*, 1799, vol. II, as a singular, nd Addison says "*a* quota." The word appears in the same orm in the Italian language as a singular. Although it is generlly used as a singular noun, there is nothing to prevent *quota* rom being used also as the *plural* of *quotum*.

19. *Dĕf' i-cit.* This word is often pronounced incorrectly *de-is' it.* I have noticed the mistake in no book except Oswald's Etymological Dictionary in which is also found *strā' ti-fy* instead f *străt' i-fy.*

20. *Dodo.* Who can increase the following list of words of two yllables, in which the first syllable is repeated: *Dodo, murmur, ulbul, humhum, strumstrum, aye-aye; haha, neb-neb, tartar, tom-om* or *tam-tam, papa, motmot, pawpaw, so-so, bonbon, furfur, mul-ul, chowchow, pooh-pooh?* The list may be increased by including proper names, as *Sing-sing, Peepee, Salm-salm, Lulu.* There re numerous instances of the repetition of syllables in the Polyesian dialects.

HOW DOES JOHN LEARN TO READ?—II.

BY W. WATKINS.

In the January number of this journal we stated three theories o account for John's learning to read, and showed that each involves a different method of instruction. We now restate these heories in brief:

1. The old alphabetic theory—he reads because he can spell.

2. The word system—he recognizes the word as a whole, just s he does other objects.

3. The phonic system—he arrives at the knowledge of a new word by a phonic synthesis; applying the powers of the letters, he constructs the word.

We must remember that it is one thing to recognize a word

already known, and quite another to learn the word. The ques tion, "How does John *learn* to read?" is by no means the sam as "How does John *read?*" The one asks how he first comes t know a word, and the other how he distinguishes or recognize that which he has already learned. Let us first consider th second theory.

Analogy would lead us to think that, as a written or printe word is a visible object, it should be recognized as other object are; that is, without any synthesis of its parts, but in its entiret guided by some leading feature, or characteristic. Thus th words *though* and *through* look alike, but are distinguished b one's containing a letter which is not in the other. Besides th analogy, we find that, in reading difficult manuscripts, we ar lost if we try to synthesize the word from its letters, but ca read by the general figure of the words. We have several time in our life succeeded in reading words at such a distance th separate letters could not be recognized.

The second theory does not tell us how John first arrives t the knowledge of a word, but it does explain the principles upo which he reads after he has learned to read fluently. Undoub edly he uses the word method. But how does he learn a ne word? This is the real question, and it is rendered more simp by our showing that the word method has no answer to th question, but that it answers another and a very different que tion. We remember that our John read well till he came to th word "head", and then he said *aitch, ee, a, de*, after which h pronounced the word. Now what was the connection betwee these senseless sounds and the word head? If he is a slow bo in his learning, and has been a long time in school and practice and heard much oral spelling, especially if there is a dull dro ing school tone in his spelling, we should suspect that in h mind the familiar word "head" is associated with the saying *aitch, ee, a, de.* He has associated something that he know namely, the spoken word head, with the repetition of a series meaningless sounds. This is mnemotechny, that old and sing lar conceit of forcing the mind to remember by associating th which is good and desirable with that which is incongruous ar absurd. We think this mnemonic connection of spelling ar pronunciation is of occasional occurrence in our schools.

Recent observations have, however, compelled us to conclu that children usually learn their new words by a phonic synth sis. Our John, who was not taught by the phonic method, wou

stop at a new word, and spell it aloud and pronounce it right, or nearly so, four times in five, and that, when he had been but a few weeks in school. He evidently knew the powers of the letters, and from them made out the words, and thus by study was teaching himself to read. In Col. Parker's school in Dayton, Ohio, where the phonic method prevails, we were much interested in observing that the youngest class of pupils study new words by the application of phonic synthesis.

Our conclusion is, that, in order to learn a new word, it is necessary to know the powers of the letters, but not necessary to be able to spell the word "off the book." The old alphabetic method succeeded because it taught the powers of letters, but did it indirectly and unconsciously. That which was indirectly accomplished under the old regime is directly done by the phonic method. With beginners the word method is only a device by which greater apparent results may be obtained, but which has but little value as a means of learning new words.

MY IDEAL OF CLASSICAL TEXT-BOOKS.

BY T. E. SULIOT.

Instead of the cumbrous and expensive succession of Latin and Greek authors, now held as indispensable, out of each of which the learners are expected to nibble a certain amount, and then toss the volume aside in order to make way for the next, I would compile a liberal selection of prose and verse, gradually rising in difficulty and richness, in order to adapt itself to the growing powers of interpretation and appreciativeness in the readers, somewhat after the manner of Hanson's Latin Extracts, only with a far wider range of writers, and a more varied and interesting choice of subjects. Surely all sound Latinity is not exclusively confined to the narrative of Cæsar's bloody wars, or Cicero's pompous rhetoric. What admirable narratives could be culled out of Livy, Quintus Curtius, Plutarch, Xenophon's Cyropedia! What lively dialogues out of Plautus, Terence, Lucian, Euripides, Sophocles, etc.! These extracts should be judiciously illustrated by notes, philological, historical, geographical, critical, so as to drill the scholar to linguistic accuracy, and, at the same time, to develop the faculty of appreciating literary beauty.

Now, compare the different condition of two classical scholars the one trained on the present orthodox plan; the other, on that which I would fain recommend. Figure to yourself the former bending under a pile of books—Latin and Greek Readers, Cæsar, Virgil, Cicero, Horace, Xenophon's Anabasis, Homer, Demosthenes, etc., on the edge of each of which volumes the experienced eye will, at once, detect the sharp line that divides the thin, read portion from the wide, unread,—the boundary between the known and the unknown. Add up, if you please, the aggregate cost of those so partially perused volumes. Now turn to my scholar; see how lightly he treads along, with a couple of moderately sized volumes under each arm, filled with the quintessence of the beauties, in prose and verse, of these two noble languages. Every page has been conned over and, we trust, savored by the reader, who has been spared a useless expenditure on *waste paper.*

It is quite possible that neither of these scholars will, in after life, have leisure, opportunity, or even will, to continue his classical studies. Still, how different the case of each! One has *done* a little in each of the above mentioned authors, going right through thick and thin, up to the regular stopping place, as laid down by the despotic dictum of colleges, to which our schools needlessly pay a slavish obedience; the other has ranged over the varied field of Latin and Greek literature, the choicest flowers of which have been discriminately culled for the gratification of his higher nature. As his classical studies have been more æsthetically conducted, may we not hope that the perfume of those flowers will not be wholly lost to him along the dusty paths of busy life, but, even there, will shed some sweetening, purifying, elevating influence. Like the vase in which roses have been once distilled,—

> "You may break, you may ruin the vase, if you will;
> But the scent of the rose will hang round it still."

THE "LOCK-OUT" REMEDY FOR TARDINESS.

We do not think that the reference of "Superintendent" to the rules and regulations of banks, postoffices, and railroads goes very far toward proving that the "lock-out" system does not subserve the convenience of the teacher rather than the interest

of the pupils. The banker consults only *his own* convenience in closing his bank at three o'clock P.M., and the same may be said of the postmaster.

The reasons for running railroad trains on time do not apply to the management of public schools. The truth of this is so plain that no argument is required to prove it. We presume that if a person should arrive at the depot in time to get on the train before it had acquired much speed, he would not be put off even though he should be one or two minutes behind card time. "Superintendent" says, "At seven A.M., the different manufacturing establishments call many hundreds of laborers to stand at the benches, the lathes, the forges. A single signal and all is activity—*every man is at his post.*" Suppose that some morning one of the workmen comes in two minutes after time, and says to the foreman, "On account of sickness in my family, it was impossible for me to be here sooner." The foreman replies, "I know that you are a good workman, and that heretofore you have always been prompt, but we must enforce the rule. You can not work here to-day, sir. The door is closed against you, and your wages for the day will be deducted from the monthly payment." If this is the practice of manufacturing establishments, then the reference to their rules is pertinent, but if this is *not* their practice, then the reference is a damaging one to the "lock-out" remedy for tardiness.

Again the writer says, "One great point of advantage of public classified schools is their *economy* of time and money, and this economy of time and money is based upon the possibility and practicability of instructing large numbers together in the same class. But large classes can not be formed or sustained except there is a uniformity of standing and proficiency; and, again, this uniformity of progress depends upon regularity of attendance upon the class exercises." We agree that all this is true, but is this not an argument *against* rather than *for* the lock-out system? Will causing a pupil to lose one or two recitations every time he comes tardy, contribute very much toward sustaining a uniformity of standing and proficiency? Certainly not; for "uniformity of progress depends upon regularity of attendance upon the class exercises." Is absence a less evil than tardiness? If a pupil, who is usually punctual in attendance, should be a few minutes tardy, will locking him out, and thus requiring or inducing him to wander about the streets during the school session, subserve his interests or the interests of the school? Does

such a rule cause every pupil to be prompt and punctual? Does it not afford an excuse for the occasional absence of the careless pupil? Why have this rule, if it is a good one, apply to the high school *only?* Is such a rule legal?

These are questions we would be pleased to have answered. We know that tardiness is a great evil, and we believe that every *proper* means should be used to prevent it, but, unless we are very much mistaken, this arbitrary practice of closing the doors against every pupil who may be one minute late, is *not* one of the proper means. W.

Lancaster, Ohio.

HOW A MOTHER TAUGHT READING.

I have heard of a lady who, thirty years ago, taught her children to read from toy-books and newspapers until they could read distinctly, and with comprehension, any short article, written in simple language. Her method was to show the child a picture, as of an ox, then, finding the word "ox", she would tell him that was "ox" also,—one being the picture of the animal and the other the picture of its name. She thus taught the child to associate the two as one idea, and he was then directed to find the word in some other book or paper, and thus the word ox, wherever found and in whatever company, represented to him a definite idea, an animal with which he was familiar. She would then take a word describing the ox in respect to color, size, or form, proceed in the same way until it was made familiar. After several words were thus made familiar, she showed that these words were composed of letters, and that by combining these letters in different ways the names of other familiar objects could be formed. In a little time the children formed a pleasant pastime in trying to form words for themselves, and in fitting them to familiar objects.

Her neighbors laughed at this painstaking mother and stigmatized her efforts as theoretical and nonsensical, but, in later years, her children proved the value of her method of teaching by their superior rank as scholars in the public schools, and all acknowledged, some reluctantly, her better judgment respecting the true method of teaching children to read.

Van Wert, O. MARTHA J. DE MERITTE.

Editorial Department.

—We call special attention to the able article in this number on a "State Uniformity of Text-books." Mr. Bateman is an educator of comprehensive and practical views, and a school officer of large and successful experience. His opinion on such a question, though unsustained by convincing argument, would be entitled to high consideration, but, in this case, we have both the opinion and the argument, and the one is as sound as the other is strong. We regret that we have been obliged to omit portions of the article, thus marring somewhat the completeness of the discussion.

—We again publish two contributions on English grammar, and because the subject needs a thorough discussion. Both articles are brief, and each grapples squarely with a difficulty which baffles many teachers and pupils. Mr. Ormsby makes clear a distinction which is the root of correct thinking and teaching in English grammar—the distinction between the *objects* of thought and the *words* which represent them. An itinerant teacher of English grammar, who professed to compass the subject in "twelve lessons", attempted to develop the idea of a noun by taking an object, as a chair, in his hand, and calling it a noun! The blunder was palpable, but it was no less real than that which nestles in many grammatical definitions. The failure to make the distinction between objects and the words representing them, leads to very funny blunders in gender, and also in person. The *noun* "tree" is said to be in the neuter gender, "because it is neither male nor female", and "bird" is said to be in the common gender, "because it may be either male or female." The pronoun "I" is often parsed in the first person, "because it is the speaker", and "thou" in the second person, "because it is spoken to." The distinction between objects, attributes, or relations, and the words expressing them, must be clearly developed as one of the first steps in the teaching of English grammar.

—A TEACHER of a country school sends us his plan of school organization. He has divided his pupils into four grades, with a definite course of instruction for each grade. The course in the lowest or D grade, includes the alphabet and first reader, with slate exercises in drawing and writing. The course in the C grade includes the second reader, primary arithmetic, language lessons, and slate exercises. The course in the B grade includes three reading lessons in the third reader and two in primary physiology each week, five lessons in intermediate arithmetic, five in elementary grammar, three lessons a week in primary geography, and two in Miss Youmans's First Book of Botany. The course in the A grade includes two lessons a week in elocution, three in read-

ing, five in arithmetic, three in grammar and two in geometry, two in U. S. history, two in U. S. government, and one in book-keeping—the last two being elective studies. He has four recitations a day for each grade, with a half hour for instruction in penmanship. The omission of spelling is noticeable, and so is the fact that geography is taught only in the B grade. But we will not criticise. We request our correspondent to write us at the close of his school, and tell us how his new scheme has worked.

—— A GENTLEMAN, who states that he is a graduate of a German gymnasium (in Prussia), and has taught several years in one of the best high schools in this country, writes us a private note, taking exception to Prof. Norton's statement respecting the relative merits of the German gymnasium and the American high or preparatory school. He admits that students leave the two institutions at about the same age, as Prof. Norton states, but he claims that the course of instruction in the German school is much more extensive and thorough than that in the American. Latin is studied in the German gymnasium for nine years, without interruption, and in this time the student reads considerable portions of Cornelius Nepos, Cæsar, Cicero, Linius, Tacitus, Sallustius, Ovid, Virgil, and Horace. During the last two years, he is able to write, in good Latin style, free Latin compositions on historical subjects, and this is done once in two weeks, the compositions averaging at least fourteen pages. At the *Abiturienten-Examen* a similar composition is written with no help except the dictionary. The course in Greek lasts six years, and the student reads Homer's Odyssea and Iliad. Xenophon, Herodotus, Thucydides, Demosthenes, and Plato. The grammar is studied thoroughly, and Greek exercises are written regularly. The modern languages are studied far enough to enable the student to read French and English classics. The course in history is very complete, and equally thorough is the drill in German composition. Compositions are written weekly, for at least six years, and, in the higher classes, once every two to four weeks. Few are less than twenty pages, and many are thirty, forty, and fifty pages long. The course in mathematics and physical sciences is about the same as in the American high school. He thinks Prof. Norton must have confounded the gymnasium with some German school of a different and inferior grade—a blunder which so intelligent an observer could not have made. It is, however, possible that Prof. N. has judged the gymnasium graduate too much from the stand-point of the physical sciences. Whatever may be the explanation, his observations on this point do not agree with those of several other American scholars who have seen the inside of German schools. But how do German boys accomplish so much more than American boys in the same time?

—— IT is with deep sorrow that we announce the death of our esteemed friend and contributor, Prof. T. E. Suliot, which occurred at Allegheny City, Pa., March 23, 1871. He had not been well for several weeks, his nervous system having first received a severe shock by the falling of a heavy window upon

his hand, and, subsequently, being completely broken down by a trying case of discipline in the college, which obliged him to stand up for order and justice. He continued to meet his classes until two days before his death. His remains are interred at Salem, O., where several of his children reside. Mr. Suliot received his early education in France, but he graduated at Glasgow University, Scotland. For several years he taught in England, a part of the time being tutor in the distinguished Burney family. Many years since, he removed with his family to this country, and settled on a farm near Kent, Ohio; but, feeling called to teach, he could not be contented and happy out of the school-room. He taught in the public schools of Cuyahoga Falls, Salem, and Kent, and in Hiram Academy (now Hiram College), Mt. Auburn Young Ladies' Institute, Earlham College, Ind., Antioch College, Wilberforce University, and, lastly, in Avery College, Pa. In his later years he felt great solicitude lest advancing age should compel him to abandon his chosen work and "rust out." His earnest desire was "to die in the harness." Mr. Suliot was a man of varied and profound learning, of fine literary taste and culture, and of the purest and broadest human sympathies. He truly loved his neighbor, and his heart was responsive to every good word and work. As an educator he was, in a true and liberal sense, a disciple of Pestalozzi, and his numerous contributions to this journal attest the strength of his faith in true Pestalozzian principles and methods. His lack of executive ability and disciplinary tact prevented his occupying eminent positions, but his humble work will live in the lives of his many pupils, and all who knew and felt his great worth, will keep green his memory. His last contribution to these pages appears in this number.

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

In reply to the inquiry of Supt. Williams, we state that a pupil belongs to a school, or is a member of it, from the time he enters until he withdraws or is transferred to another school. He is not a member before he enters nor after he withdraws. Hence the average number of pupils belonging to a school is the average daily enrollment, or, more accurately, the average daily membership. When no pupil of a school is absent *while a member of it*, the average number belonging and the average number in daily attendance are equal, and the average per cent. of attendance is 100.

Suppose, for illustration, that a school enrolled forty pupils in a given month, of whom ten entered school on Monday of the second week, and six withdrew at the close of the third week. It is plain that sixteen of the pupils enrolled in the month belonged to the school, or were members of it, only three weeks each, and that the average number belonging, or the average daily membership, was only *thirty-six*. The average number belonging may be found by adding the daily membership for the several days in the time, and dividing the sum by the number of days; or it may be found by dividing the sum of the total days present and total days absent (of actual members) by the number of days in the time. The transcript of the school record, sent us by Mr. Williams,

does not show whether any pupils entered school after the beginning of the month nor whether any withdrew before its close, and hence we can not find the average number belonging, as requested. In case each of the pupils enrolled was a member of the school the entire month, the average number belonging equaled the number enrolled.

The method of finding the per cent. of attendance by taking the average number belonging as a basis, involves the principle that the attendance of a school is perfect *if no member of it is ever absent.* Suppose, for illustration, that each of the forty pupils in the school, referred to above, was present each half day while a member. The per cent. of attendance, with the average number belonging as a basis, would be 100; while the per cent. of attendance, based on the whole number of pupils enrolled, would be only 90. The latter method considers the sixteen pupils absent the week during which they were not members of the school.

The question arises, Which of these methods presents the *truth?* The answer depends on the end in view. If the average per cent. of attendance is designed to show the degree of regularity with which pupils attend school while actual members, the first method ascertains the truth; if, on the contrary, the purpose is to show to what extent the pupils enrolled in the schools are actually enjoying school privileges—the great question which concerns the public—the second method is preferable, since, for this purpose, it makes no difference whether a youth is absent when a member of school or when he is not a member. The amount of absence is the real concern. It may be said that the first method is best for the teacher, and the second is best for the public, except in cases of transfer of pupils from one school to another, when the second method is faulty, at least so far as individual schools are concerned.

The practical difficulty in using the method based on the average number belonging, is in determining just when pupils are members of school. In cases of sickness it is often impossible to determine whether a pupil will be able to return to school, and hence, in making out the per cent. of attendance for a given month, considerable errors may be made. The "Chicago Rule", which has been widely adopted, was designed to remove this and other difficulties, and to present a uniform basis for estimating school attendance. But the rule does not meet the anticipations of its originator or of those who have adopted it. It is easy to include absent pupils in the "withdrawn" list, and thus eliminate actual absence from the record.

The objection to the method, based on the enrollment, is the variation in the per cent. when computed for different periods of time. The enrollment for a year gives a low per cent.; the enrollment for a term gives a higher per cent.; for a month a still higher per cent.; for a week a still higher; while the coveted *one hundred per cent.* may always be reached by taking the enrollment for each half day as a basis! In this case the average enrollment becomes the average attendance. A variation is also caused by increasing or shortening the length of school terms.

Taking all things into consideration, we conclude that the best method of finding the per cent. of attendance is to take as a basis the ***monthly enrollment***, including the name of every pupil present more than one day in the month.

This makes a simple and definite basis, and the period of time is sufficiently long to serve the purpose of both the teacher and the public. In Ohio the weekly enrollment is officially recommended as the basis, but this brings the per cent. too near one hundred to give the public a just idea of the amount of absence and irregularity. But for the unequal division of the school year in different cities, we would prefer to take the enrollment for two or even three months. The month is, however, a more convenient period, and we hope to see it generally adopted. The item, "average number belonging", may, we think, be advantageously discarded from school statistics. In practice, it is found to be too indefinite for the satisfactory comparison of school attendance in different localities.

THE SCHOOL-BOOK QUESTION.

In the past administration of the school systems of this country, there has been a wise recognition of the principle that the State should assume no power which can safely be left to the people in their local capacity. Among the school powers which the States have never exercised, are the location, building, and furnishing of school-houses, the employment of teachers, the arrangement of courses of study, and, until recently, the selection of text-books. It is true that these powers have not always been exercised as wisely as they might have been, but it is evident that the people have, on the whole, done much better for themselves than the State would have done for them. The responsibility of school management has instituted discussion, investigation, and experiment, and the best minds and the highest practical skill of the country have been interested and employed in school improvement. In no direction has this activity been more marked, or more fruitful of good results, than in the improvement of school-books. A more complete classification and better courses and methods of instruction have demanded better books, and, reciprocally, better books have introduced improved methods. Experience has shown that the most feasible mode of improving the instruction of the great majority of American teachers, is to embody improved methods of teaching in text-books. It may be that this ought not to be the fact, but it is.

It is now proposed to abandon the policy under which the American school system has achieved so great success, and to try a centralization of school authority and control. The first step proposed in this direction is the withdrawal from the people of the right to determine what books shall be used in their schools, and the adoption of a State Series. This mischievous innovation is urged in the interest of "uniformity", and several States have been misled by the specious plea. It is, indeed, necessary that there be a uniformity of text-books in every school and school district, and this can be secured by the local school boards. State uniformity would be of some pecuniary advantage to movers and itinerants, and a national uniformity would be still more convenient. But a state and national uniformity of school books involves educational interests vastly more important than the pecuniary loss occa-

sioned by the sale of one set of books and the purchase of another by families moving.

It is evident to every one familiar with school instruction, that the duty of determining the classification and the courses and methods of instruction in a school or a system of schools, involves the right to determine what text-books shall be used. The two duties are, in their very nature, inseparable. If the local school authorities are entrusted with the former, they should also be entrusted with the latter. Take, for illustration, the five leading cities of Ohio—Cincinnati, Cleveland, Toledo, Columbus, and Dayton. These cities have each their peculiar system of gradation and classification, and their courses of study and instruction, embodying the combined views and experience of their school officers and teachers. In English grammar, geography, and other branches, there has been a careful selection of what is believed best to be taught, and an agreement as to the general order in which the several topics shall be presented. It can hardly be necessary to show that the highest success of each system demands the adoption of text-books adapted to its principles and methods. The use of text-books embodying opposite or conflicting educational ideas and methods, can but result in a great waste of time and effort, Mr. Bateman carries this view down to the needs of individual schools and teachers, and his argument here is unanswerable.

This suggests another objection to a state series of school books. It takes from the profession of teaching the opportunity of determining its own methods and means. The power to prescribe text-books carries with it the right to say that their methods shall be followed, and this, of course, concedes the whole ground of school instruction. When the selection of text-books is left to boards of education, the views and wishes of the teachers who are to use them, are generally consulted and respected. The profession is thus able to secure an improvement of its tools, its instrumentalities. The state system, on the contrary, removes this question from the reach of the profession. It entrusts it to a board of officers who do not know the views and needs of individual corps of teachers, or, if knowing, can not consider them. The highest results of local investigation and experiment, the possibilities of needed reform, disclosed by earnest thought and effort, are thus sacrificed to the demands of a dead-level uniformity.

But it is not our present purpose to attempt a full discussion of this subject, but rather to notice briefly two or three other reasons assigned in favor of a state series of school books. It is urged that the local system is attended by too frequent changes of books. Undoubtedly this is an evil in many school districts, and the want of all change is an equal evil in others. It is true, indeed, that the people do not manage many of their affairs as well as they might, or as well as many persons think they could for them. School boards often waste money in the building of ill-planned and badly located school-houses, and in furnishing and heating them. Would it not be well for the State to give the people the benefit of its wisdom and economy (!) in the building art? A state contract is about as tight as a sieve! Again, there is no evil connected with the local management of our schools, so great as the frequent change of teachers. No other cause so squanders school funds and so

wastes the precious time and opportunity of the young. Would it not be well for the State to employ teachers as well as prescribe text-books?

But is not the frequency of change in text-books by local boards greatly over-stated? We believe that a careful examination of the subject will show that the text-books used in the common schools of Ohio in reading, spelling, arithmetic, English grammar, and geography, have not been changed, *on an average*, as often as once in *seven years*. In some localities the sharp competition of publishers has caused unwise and too frequent changes, but these are local abuses of a good system, and such abuses are as easily corrected by law as like abuses by a state board. Moreover, the people who pay the cost of unnecessary changes, can easily call their representatives in the local boards to an account.

The practical working of the state system, where adopted, shows that, taking the entire State into consideration, the changes of books have been more frequent than under the local system. For reasons already given, no state series can meet the views of all classes of teachers or the wants of different schools and school systems. Hence there will be opposition and a pressure for a change, which a new state board is not unwilling to heed. The list is revised, and each change touches every school district in the State. It is easy to see that the state plan is peculiarly exposed to improper influences and corruption. The immense money interest involved in the adoption of a series of school books for a great State, invites the fiercest competition, and few state boards have escaped the suspicion and charge of corruption. This may be due to the fact that the people have not yet learned that politicians, who usually constitute a majority of these boards, are incorruptible.

The claim that the state scheme reduces the price of books, is refuted by all experience, as Mr. Bateman shows. There is no mode of reducing prices equal to free competition, and in no department of industry is this truer than in the school-book business. The great publishing houses of the country have fought many of their fiercest battles over the prices of their books, and each has figured closely to prevent being cut under. It is true that some of these firms make large aggregate profits, but this is due to their immense sales A small profit on each book gives a large aggregate when hundreds of thousands of copies are sold annually. If the percentage of the retail dealer be deducted from the price of elementary school books, it will be seen that the publisher's profit on each book is small. Indeed, the strife among publishers to furnish books at a low price, has resulted in inferior mechanical execution, and we are glad to see a re-action in favor of better materials and workmanship. A school book should be printed from large and clear type, and it should be made neat, attractive, and durable.

We are aware that there have been serious abuses in the school-book business, and we are happy to believe that some of them have been corrected. We urge further reforms, but in our efforts to correct abuses, let us not repeat the blunder of the ignorant surveyor who, annoyed by the variation of his compass, caused by the presence of iron ore, *tightened the screw so that the needle could not turn!*

THE SCHOOL RECORD OF OHIO FOR 1870.

The seventeenth annual report of the Commissioner of Common S of Ohio is a full and interesting exhibit of the condition of public educa the State. It contains the report proper of the Commissioner; thirt carfully compiled statistical tables; a report of the teachers' institute Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association, held in Cleveland, Sept., 187 sponses by county auditors and school examiners, respecting the conditi needs of the schools; thirty sets of examination questions, used by as county boards of examiners; and an appendix of school laws.

The greater portion of the Commissioner's report is devoted to sum and explanations of the statistical tables, from which we select the fol important items:

	1869.	1
Number of townships not organized as separate school districts	1,347	
Number of separate school districts	473	
Number of sub-districts in townships	10,738	
Whole number of school houses	11,404	
Number of school houses erected during the year	664	
Cost of school houses erected and grounds	$1,874,113	$1,
Total value of school-houses and grounds	$12,462,710	$13,
Whole number of schools	11,714	
Whole number of school-rooms	.....	
Number of youth between the ages of five and twenty-one years, enumerated	1,028,877	1,
Increase for the year	9,675	
Number of pupils enrolled in the public schools	740,382	
Average number of pupils in daily attendance	434,865	
Per centum of enumerated youth enrolled	72	
Per centum of pupils enrolled in daily attendance	58.7	
Per centum of enumerated youth in daily attendance	42.2	
Whole number of different male teachers employed	9,171	
Whole number of different female teachers employed	12,455	
Number of teachers necessary to supply the schools	14,182	
Average number of weeks sub-district schools were in session	26.14	
Average number of weeks graded schools were in session	33.53	
Number of different applicants for county certificates	21,613	
Number of applicants for certificates rejected	3,385	
Average monthly wages of male teachers in townships	$38 08	
Average monthly wages of female teachers in townships	$24.29	
Average monthly wages of male teachers in separate districts, not including high schools	.....	
Average monthly wages of female teachers in separate districts, not including high schools	.....	
Total amount paid teachers	$3,671,905	$3,
Amount paid for managing and superintending (local)	.....	
Expenditures for sites, building, and repairs	$2,024,729	$1,
For fuel and other contingent expenses	$834,159	$1,
Grand total of expenditures	$6,630,793	$7,
Receipts from interest on school funds	$227,747	$
Receipts from State tax (1.3 mills)	$1,438,805	$1,
Receipts from local tax	$4,334,864	$4,
Receipts from miscellaneous sources	$624,089	$
Grand total of receipts	$6,625,504	$7,
Average rate of local school tax in townships (mills)	3.69	
Average rate of local school tax in separate districts	7.40	
Number of county teachers' institutes held	77	

A comparison of these two columns shows, on the whole, healthy pr but the most marked advance is in the daily attendance and in the recei

expenditures. These results show an increasing popular interest in public education. The decrease of 15,486 in the number of pupils enrolled is evidently due, as the Commissioner states, to an increased accuracy in the school returns. In remodeling the blanks, last year, great pains was taken to prevent the mistake of counting reënrolled pupils *twice*. The corrections of evident errors of this kind in 1864, reduced the enrollment more than 55,000. The Commissioner thinks that the reported enrollment is now full 100,000 too many; that the actual enrollment does not exceed 60 per cent. of the enumeration. This belief is based on the school attendance of a town whose statistics have been accurately kept. In this town there are no children growing up in ignorance, and yet the average enrollment for two years has been only 61 per cent. of the enumeration. Making due allowance for the fact that children are admitted to the township schools at five instead of six years of age, and that a larger per cent. of the youth between sixteen and twenty-one attend school than in citiesand towns, we think the true annual enrollment may reach 65 per cent. of the enumeration.

But taking the official enrollment (724,896) to be correct, what per cent. of the remaining 316,964 youth of school age are growing up unschooled? Thanks to the Commissioner, we are getting more light on this subject. The enumeration blanks, last year, called for the number of youth between sixteen and twenty-one years of age, and the full returns from thirty-one counties give 69,363, or about 21 per cent. of the number between the ages of five and twenty-one. This proportion for the State, would give 220,315 youth between sixteen and twenty-one, and of this number but 69,835 were enrolled in the public schools. We thus see that of the 316,964 enumerated youth. not in school last year, 150,480 were over sixteen years of age. The Commissioner estimates that 23,859 children between five and six years of age, are excluded by law from the schools in cities and towns. These two items account for the non-attendance of 174,339 youth. Of the remaining 132,625 absent youth, full 40,000 were enrolled in Catholic and other private schools, leaving about 93,000 absentees between five and sixteen years of age in the country and between six and sixteen in the cities and towns. If our estimated enrollment (677,209) be taken as correct, the number of such absentees is about 140,000. How many of this number were too young to attend school or had attended six or more years, we can not tell. Several thousand are colored youth, who were unjustly and unrighteously denied school privileges.

A noticeable fact is the increase in the number of male teachers and the decrease in the number of female teachers. We supposed that the opposite was true. The thirty sets of examination questions constitute an interesting and suggestive feature. Their value would have been increased by a statement of the number of applicants examined in the class; the number who received certificates; the average per cent. of correct answers given; and the per cent. required for each grade of certificate. These facts would assist in comparing the standards of the several boards of examiners.

A want of space compels us to postpone the consideration of other items in this suggestive report.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—— The Western Female Seminary building at Oxford, O., was burned on the 7th of April. The fire originated in the bakeroom in the basement. No lives were lost, but many of the young ladies narrowly escaped with only their night clothing. Several jumped from the windows in the second and third stories, one being seriously injured. The loss is estimated at $150,000, with $70,000 insurance. The walls of the building are not seriously injured, and steps have been taken to rebuild. This is the second time this excellent institution has suffered from a like calamity.

—— Dr. Sears, agent of the Peabody Fund, distributed last year $111,000 in aid of common-school education in the South. Donations from the fund are made on condition that schools be established, and a specified part of the expenses provided for by taxation or subscription. The fund is thus made a strong incentive to self-help on the part of school districts, and it has secured the co-operation of many men who have hitherto been opposed to free schools. The fund consists of $2,000,000, now yielding an annual income of about $120,000, and $1,500,000 in Mississippi state bonds, which, when paid, will yield some $90,000 annually.

—— The tenth and final semi-annual report of the Superintendent of the Freedmen's Schools covers the six months ending July 1, 1870. It represents the general character of the freedmen's education to be higher than ever before. More than 247,000 youth received systematic instruction either in day schools or Sabbath-schools. The number of schools of all kinds was 4,239, and the number of teachers 9,307. The number of high and normal schools has increased to 74, with an attendance of 8,167 students, and 61 industrial schools are now in operation with an attendance of 1,750. No one can deny that these freedmen's schools have done inestimable good, and it is to be hoped that the great work may be taken up by the States, and carried forward until it reaches and blesses every child.

—— The by-law of the board of education of New York City, forbidding the use of the rod, does not seem to work well. Supt. Kiddle states in his annual report that it makes the discipline of the schools more difficult and less efficient. Many teachers find great difficulty in governing boys' schools, and to such an extent are the energies of some female teachers exhausted in preserving order, that they are unable to give sufficient instruction. The aid of parents is more frequently invoked than formerly, and "very often without effect." The number of pupils expelled from the schools in 1870—the first year of the anti-rod rule—was 287, of whom 27 belonged to the primary schools. "It can not be said", remarks Mr. Kiddle, "that our system is truly efficient while it is necessary to expel a pupil, not thoroughly depraved, from any of the schools in consequence of a want of power to control him and thus amend his character and manners."

Thomas H. Burrowes, LL.D.—We announced last month the death of this eminent educator, and promised a sketch of his educational services. Dr. Burrowes was born in Lancaster county, Pa., Nov. 16, 1805, and, having received a good education he began the study of law in 1825, and was admitted to the bar in 1829. He was elected to the State Legislature in 1831, and again in 1832, and, in 1835, he was appointed Secretary of State, which made him *ex-officio* State Superintendent of Common Schools. Here began his zealous labors in the cause of education, which were

continued until his death. The common-school law of 1834 was very imperfect, and Mr. Burrowes prepared a revised bill, which was passed in 1836, and the school system went into effective operation. During his official term of three years, he visited every county in the State. In 1847 he published "The State Book of Pennsylvania", which was a favorite reading book in the shcools. In 1849 he established the *Pennsylvania School Journal*, remaining its editor and proprietor until last October. In 1853 he organized the first teachers' institute in Eastern Pennsylvania. In 1854 he prepared the "Pennsylvania School Architecture", which was published by the State. In 1857 he drafted the Normal School Law of the State. In 1860 he was appointed State Superintendent of Common Schools, and served again three years with great efficiency. In 1864 he was appointed superintendent of the schools for Soldiers' Orphans, which he organized and put into effective operation. In 1869 he was elected president of the State Agricultural College, in which position he remained until his death, Feb. 25, 1871. This meagre sketch gives but a faint idea of the great service which Dr. Burrowes rendered the cause of education in his native State. His labors were manifold, and his influence wide and potent.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.—After much unavoidable delay, the Publishing Committee of the National Educational Convention have made preparation for the publication of the proceedings of the meeting held in Cleveland in August last. The volume will contain the larger part of the papers presented before the convention, and full stenographic reports of the discussions following the same. Among the papers are the addresses of Presidents John Ogden, of the Normal Association, and D. B. Hagar, of the Teachers' Association; report of Dr. J. W. Hoyt, Chairman of Committee on National University; report of Prof. W. F. Phelps, of State Normal School, Winona, Minn., on "Course of Study for Normal Schools"; paper of Eben Tourjee, Mus. Doc., of the New England Conservatory of Music, entitled "A Plea for Vocal Music in Public Schools"; paper of Supt. E. A. Sheldon, of Oswego, on "Primary Instruction"; paper of Miss Delia A. Lathrop, Principal of Cincinnati Normal School, on "The Place and Value of Object Lessons"; paper of Supt. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, on "Text-Books;" and of Prof. J. H. Blodgett, of Rockford, Ill., on "Grammar in Common Schools." The full reports of the discussions following these papers will give to this volume a value not possessed by any previous reports of the Association, or indeed by any other volume of the kind hitherto published in this country.

The report will also contain the addresses of Hon. F. A. Sawyer, U. S. Senator from South Carolina, on "Free Common Schools—What they can do for a State"; of Gen. Eaton, National Commissioner of Education, on "The Relation of the National Government to Public Education; and of Supt. J. L. Pickard, of Chicago, on "Physical Culture."

It is expected that the volume will be ready for distribution to members soon. Those not members of the convention can be supplied with copies at $1.00 each, by forwarding their address and money to S. H. White, Peoria, Illinois.

For the Committee: S. H. WHITE, *Chairman.*

CENTRAL WESTERN STATES.

ARKANSAS.—I came to this State in time to attend the meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held at Little Rock the last week of December. The attendance was not large, but much earnest and hopeful work was done. State Superintenden t Smith presided with unaffected dignity, and the several Circuit Superintendents present showed that they have the cause of education at heart. Among the subjects considered were the districting of the counties; the prevention of immoral and in-

competent persons from becoming teachers, a state levy sufficient to sustain the schools six months; the distribution of the school funds according to attendance; and the establishment of a state university. Several lady teachers read well written papers, showing that they are willing to do their part in building up a school system in this State where, as Dr. Smith said, "two thirds of the adult population can not read the Lord's Prayer." The work necessary to be done to place Arkansas on an equal educational footing with her northern sisters, is great and arduous, and yet I believe that it will be done. Those who know "whereof they affirm" say that wonders have been accomplished since the passage of the Free School Law, three short years since, and a brief sojourn here is sufficient to show that the assertion is true. No one reared in a State long blessed with a free-school system, can form an adequate idea of the obstacles to be overcome in establishing such a system here, and certainly the opening of so many schools, with teachers of even tolerable attainments, and the overcoming of the prejudices of the people sufficiently to secure even a small attendance, are long steps in the right direction. If any reader of this letter who loves his fellow men as to be willing to sacrifice home, friends, and ease, let him come out to this field where the harvest is ripe. (MISS) H. C. WOODRUFF.

Pennington's Mills, Pulaska Co., Ark.

—— WE are glad to learn that the General Assembly of Arkansas has adjourned without making any material change in the present school system, and so it is to have two years more of trial, in which its success will be assured. A law was passed creating a board of trustees for the establishment of an Industrial University.—— The *Journal of Education* was changed to a magazine form the first of the year, and the four numbers on our table give promise of wide influence. The *Journal* is edited by Hon. Thomas Smith, State Superintendent of Public Instruction,—a live and able school officer.

NEBRASKA.—The sixteenth and thirty-sixth sections of land in each township, donated by the United States for school purposes, promise to yield a large school fund. The amount of land in these sections in the settled portion of the State, lying east of the First Guide Meridian, which is 200 miles east of the west line of the State, is about 832,000 acres. The state constitution fixes the minimum price of these lands at $5 an acre, which the Legislature has increased to $7, and good judges think that the land may be sold to realize an average of $10 an acre. The proceeds constitute an irreducible fund, the interest of which is to be used for school purposes. In addition to this great donation, the State has received 90,000 acres for an Agricultural College, 46,080 acres for a State University, and 40,080 acres of salt-spring lands, a portion of which the State has wisely set apart for the support of a State Normal School, already established at Peru. The State also receives five per cent. of the proceeds of all lands sold within its limits, both before and since its admission into the Union, to be paid in money. If these munificent grants are honestly and wisely managed and used, they will prove sources of great prosperity and progress.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The general school law of Pennsylvania makes it the duty of the school superintendent of each county to call and hold annually a teachers' institute continuing in session at least five days, and, to pay the expenses thereof, he is entitled to draw from the county treasury one dollar for every three days of attendance by teachers, but the sum thus drawn can not exceed $200 and it may in all cases be $60. The law also provides that "all boards of directors may allow the teachers in their employ the privilege of attending such institutes without making any deduction

heir salaries, and that any teacher who absents himself from the institute of unty without good reason, may have his want of professional spirit and zeal ed by a lower mark on his certificate in the practice of teaching than he would ise have received." Under these provisions the institute system is reaching a r proportion of the teachers than that of any other State. The last annual of Superintendent Wickersham—an excellent document—shows that, with teachers employed in the schools, the number of actual members in attend- t the institutes, was 11,210, with an average attendance of 7,913. The number orary members was 1,952, and the attendance of spectators, counting those : at some one session of each institute, was 28,274. The cost of the instruc- all the institutes held was $14,479, of which $11,214 was paid by the several s and $3,265 by the members. Since October last, we have attended several Pennsylvania institutes as an instructor, and we feel justified in saying that r State assembles such large bodies of teachers in this capacity. The institute t Chester enrolled over 500, and the smallest institute we have visited, had an ient of over 200. These large audiences are a strong temptation to the man- o let matters of general interest crowd out professional instruction, and even rs are tempted to leave the plain, practical duties of the school-room. So ve have observed, the day exercises of the institutes in Pennsylvania do not directly and practically on school instruction and management as in Ohio. are more literary and general lectures and exercises. The spirit of the teach- admirable.

GHENY COUNTY.—The annual institute held at Pittsburgh, April 3–7, afforded long coveted opportunity of meeting the teachers of Allegheny county, who, ny years, have been under the leadership of Mr. A. T. Douthett, one of the county superintendents of the State. We had the good fortune to have for urers, Prof. Mark Bailey, of Yale College, and Dr. N. S. Townshend, of Ohio. Bailey's lectures on elocution were the best we have ever heard on the subject. ; those whom we had the pleasure of meeting, were Deputy State Supt. Houck, ackey, Profs. Burt and Harrison, of Pittsburgh, Prof. Curry, of Curry's Insti- ev. M. B. Sloan, editor of the *School Chronicle*, President Hays, of Washing- lege, Rev. W. C. Falconer, Rev. A. J. Rowland, and Rev. Dr. Bittinger—most m we had formerly known in Ohio.

WARE.—It is a healthy sign when politicians are sensitive respecting the edu- l reputation of their State. It shows that popular ignorance is felt to be a disgrace. This is illustrated in Senator Bayard's late defense of Delaware in ited States Senate, against the statements contained in the annual report of tional Commissioner of Education. Failing to obtain official information re- g the present condition of public education in the State, the Commissioner extracts from a circular, issued in May last by the State Normal University. rcular represents that public education in the State is "in a lamentable and ous condition." The school law leaves the school tax optional "to the school in each district." If they vote "against a tax", the only resort is to try to he money by subscription. The result is, that many districts go without a the entire year, and the free school system really exists in only portions of ate, and in no section has it extended to the colored population. "The result present system, or rather want of system, is a deplorable state of ignorance." and other statements, intended to rouse the people to a realization of the ne- of reform, touched the state pride of the Senator, and roused his enmity it the institution which had issued the circular, and, as a punishment, *the Leg- e has repealed its charter!* How this act vindicates the educational reputation State, is past our comprehension. It looks to us like a confession of the

truth of the charges, and a determination that the educational condition of the Stat shall be made still worse. It is due the people of Wilmington and New Castle to say that these cities have good public schools. The schools of Wilmington enrolled last month 3,734 pupils, with an average attendance of 3,039. To meet the want of in creased accommodations, the board is erecting a fine building with seats for 50 scholars. The cost of the system the past year was $39,775, or $10.65 a pupil. Th schools are now under the supervision of Mr. David W. Harlan, who is earnestly engaged in their improvement, assisted by a progressive and earnest corps o teachers.

NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

OHIO.—The codified school bill was reported back by the committee near the close o the session, but it was finally reached, badly amended, and then defeated by a vot of 51 yeas to 49 nays, being six yeas less than the number required to pass it, and s another General Assembly dies without having done anything for the improvemen of the school system.——The State Board of Examiners will hold a meeting fo the examination of applicants for State Certificates at Sandusky, on July 7 an 8, 1871. By the law establishing this Board, they are "authorized to issue Stat Certificates of high qualification to such teachers as may be found upon examinatio to possess requisite scholarship, and who may also exhibit satisfactory evidence o good moral character and of eminent professional experience and ability." The rul of the Board require applicants to furnish satisfactory testimonials of success i teaching for five or more years and also of good moral character, and to pass an exam nation in Orthography, Reading, English Grammar, English Literature, History Geography, Arithmetic, Algebra, Geometry, Physiology, Natural Philosophy, Con stitution of the United States, and Theory and Practice of Teaching. Certificate granted by the Board are valid in any public school in Ohio for the life time of th holder, unless revoked by the Board. The present members of the Board are A. Rickoff, Cleveland, John Hancock, Cincinnati, and T. C. Mendenhall, Columbus.

—— HON. W. D. HENKLE now holds the office of State Commissioner of Comm Schools by appointment of the Governor for the unexpired term of Col. Norris, r signed, and, having proved a faithful and competent officer, we hope that he ma receive the merited indorsement of a unanimous nomination for the next term. Th interests of education require greater permanency in the School Department. Th fact that there has been no important school legislation in Ohio for the past seve years, is largely due the frequent changes in this office. It takes experience, as w as tact and wisdom, to manage school interests in a legislative body. Several im portant measures of school progress must be secured of the next General Assembl and it is hoped that the present Commissioner will not be relieved from duty ju when he may be master of the situation.

—— C. S. BRAGG, Esq., of the firm of Ingham & Bragg, Cleveland, has become partner in the publishing house of Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati. Mr. Bra has been long connected with the school-book business, and he brings to his n position, not only business talent of a high order, but large experience. He is valuable accession to this strong house.

—— THE WEST VIRGINIA TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION will hold its next annual s sion at Ravenswood, Jackson county, on Tuesday, Wednesday, and Thursday, Ju 27th, 28th, and 29th, 1871. A full programme will be given next month.

S. R. THOMPSON,
Chairman of Executive Committee

BOOK NOTICES.

ELEMENTARY TREATISE ON MECHANICS. By WILLIAM G. PECK, LL.D. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

This is a new edition of an old book. It was issued first in 1859, and intended, as the author states to fill a place between the purely popular works on the one hand, and those of the highest grade on the other. Many years of experience in its use as a text-book have resulted in the present edition, which is the former much reduced n bulk, simplified, and greatly improved. It embraces all the elementary propositions of Mechanics, rigidly demonstrated, yet the author has, in this new edition, mitted all use of the Calculus, in view of the fact that this branch of the mathematics is rarely taught in our schools and colleges. Some omissions and misstatements occur—such as the assertion that the pendulum furnishes the standard yard, hich is the basis of the English system of weights and measures; whereas the English yard is entirely arbitrary. Also, it is not strictly true that our own system of eights and measures is the same as the English. But these are minor points, and ere the book otherwise unobjectionable, they would not be worthy of notice. lthough the author has made a commendabble effort to popularize the study of Mechanics by shearing it of some of its mathematical perplexities, we are of the opinon that he has left his book sadly deficient in one important respect. We are continually hearing, from practical mechanics, hydraulic engineers, etc., complaints as o the incompatibility of theory and practice. We are told that the propositions manating from science are irreconcilable with the results of practice. Hence a prejudice, which I do not think is diminishing, against the study in our high schools nd colleges of these text-books on practical arts and sciences. This objection does ot, of course, hold against our more extended and comprehensive treatises, which re, however, too ponderous, too mathematical, and too expensive to be of much service to the mass of our practical workingmen. It ought not to hold against our elementary treatises, which could and should be made, as far as they go, as thoroughly ractical and workable as the most elaborate works. To be more specific, in this ook, as in most of its class, we are given theoretical results, without the necessary odification of those results in practice. We learn the formulas for space and time f a falling body, upon the supposition that the air makes no resistance; the range f a projectile is calculated for a vacuum. After a discussion of all of the elementary machines, the reader is dismissed by a reference to more extended treatises for knowledge of the effect upon these machines of the hurtful resistances which always ccompany their operation. With the exception of a table of coefficients of friction nd one of specific gravities, there are none of the results of experiment given; at least none in a tabular form. Had the volume been no larger than it is, it might have contained all that is most valuable in it at present, and, in addition, the condensed results of the best and latest experiments upon the subjects of which it treats. The author of this work is well prepared to give us such a book, and we hope that nother ten years' experience may bring it forth. T. C. M.

LOSSINGS'S GRAMMAR-SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. From the Discovery of America to the Present Time. New York: Sheldon & Co.

Granting for the present the advisableness of making formal recitations in history a part of the grammar-school course, we can not recommend this book as well adapted to its purpose. Excepting the introductory part about the condition of the country when first colonized, and the Indian tribes, it is dry and bare. An elementary history should pass lightly over mere names of battles, successions of presidents

and changes of administrations. The author should reserve his strength and space for salient points, calculated to command the attention of the reader. A few anecdotes like that on page 111, about the interview of the Boston boys with General Gage to complain of the British soldiers knocking down their snow-hills, or that on p. 170, about General Marion inviting a young British envoy to stay to a dinner of roasted potatoes served upon pieces of bark, would better enable them to realize the old revolutionary spirit, than whole pages of vapid narrative.

Another fault we have to find, is the affected childishness of style adapted, I suppose, to the childish comprehension of the readers. I wish my space allowed me to substantiate my objection by quoting a few of the instances with which the book abounds. But if the reader will take the trouble to refer to pp. 145, 174, 179, 181, 190, 226, 233, 236, 250, he will see what I mean. The writer should be aware that readers of that age are much more sensitive than their elders, and more likely to resent being addressed in babish fashion. Better drop the subject of Slavery and Mormonism altogether, than tell us that "the Mormons made some trouble", that "the subject of Slavery kept the people of the country in continual disputes, and created much bad feeling." On page 232 we read: "Many people, particularly of the North, were not pleased with what was called the Compromise Measure." Who could suspect that this refers to the infamous Fugitive Slave Law? What good will the scholars derive from such scraps of informaton? Is it not like attempting to feed them with the husks, instead of the kernel. If they are too young to form a just appreciation of the bearings of that conflict between North and South, between freedom for all and negro slavery, which underlies the whole of American history for the last half century, let the study be postponed until their minds have become strong enough to grasp it. It may be that those weighty matters could not have been treated with the fullness necessary to make them intelligible to grammar-school pupils; but this only tends to prove that an attempt to give a regular consecutive history of this Republic for scholars who are not yet sufficiently mature to trace events to their causes or deduce from them their natural consequences, must result in failure.

Among the illustrative maps, I would specially notice the first which gives the location of the Indian tribes at the time of the first European settlements. Such a map should have a place in every American atlas.

Seeing then in this work only a sort of very full table of contents, I ask myself how is the teacher expected to use it, for the purpose not of cramming his pupils' heads with mere facts and names and dates, but of their real instruction and of awakening in their hearts an intelligent patriotism? Who shall have both command of time and power of graphic description, sufficient to clothe the dry bones with flesh and breathe into them a living soul? T. E. S.

LE MAGASIN FRANCAIS: A monthly quarto sheet, principally made up of the Best Periodical Literature of France. New York: Leypoldt & Holt. Price, $1.50 a year.

This is a spirited attempt by those spirited foreign publishers to supply advanced students of French with choice matter, coming ever new every month, sparkling with wit and humor. This lively periodical will be especially welcomed in young ladies' seminaries. It is just what they want. T. E. S.

THE BOSTON TRAINING SCHOOL for Teachers of the Dio Lewis System of New Gymnastics, will hold its next session in Boston from July 12 till Sept. 1. For circular and particulars address F. G. Welch, Yale College, New Haven, Conn., or Dio Lewis, Boston, Mass.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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THE PARTNERS IN SCHOOL MANAGEMENT.

BY J. L. PICKARD, CHICAGO.

In the administration of any system of schools, there must, of necessity, be some division of labor and of responsibility. Boards of education, superintendents, and teachers are the agencies usually employed. The specific duties of each may be profitably discussed; but, to my mind, school patrons have a voice, and the firm, taking in hand the school business, should consist of officers, teachers, and patrons. A thorough understanding of the nature of the business to be transacted will prepare us to assign to each of the partners his proper share of the labor and of the responsibility.

For what are schools organized? That by united effort parents may more economically and efficiently discharge the duties they owe their children. Every child has a right to such training and culture as will best fit him to meet the just claims of the family and of the State.

The family is a little world in itself. Common dangers are met by common defense, and the State thus combines families, increasing security and diminishing expense. The parent then delegates one part of his work to civil authorities; another part he may delegate to schools. Other parts he may never delegate to any person, but he must meet the responsibility individually and alone. The part of the work belonging to secular schools by common consent and with propriety, has reference mainly to

that intellectual and moral culture which enters largely into the composition of the man and of the citizen. By the parent's consent the school assumes a part of his work, and whatever were the parent's duties within the conceded limits, the school must perform. Parents furnish material to be wrought upon, and the money necessary for its working. They thus become the prominent partners in the firm, selecting directly or indirectly their associates who are to be the working members. The senior partners confer upon their juniors the right to do for them what they would be expected to do—the right to choose studies and to determine the order and the course of their prosecution, to direct as to the habits of the pupils while under their care and supervision, and to control their conduct by judicious regulations enforced by suitable penalties. The senior partners have a right to demand a wise and economical expenditure of the means furnished, and a faithful handling of material that there be no waste. The junior partners have a right to claim perfect freedom within the limits of their work to do just what the family and the State demand of the parent—nothing more and nothing less.

With this understanding the junior partners assume the work and divide it among themselves—the teachers doing the work laid out for them by boards of education and under the supervision of superintendents. The profits inure to the benefit of the parents, but teachers will also remember that these same parents run all the risk of losses. It is in the power of the teacher to ensure profit, but, to this end, he will come only when left largely to the development of his own power in his own way. His work is necessarily determined for him, but the *manner* of its accomplishment is as necessarily left to his own choice. Wise supervision *enforces* no methods, but encourages careful study of methods by the light of experience. The superintendent's duty therefore, leads him to a careful comparison of methods, and to such a presentation of the best as shall secure their adoption by those who can make the best use of them, remembering always that what is best for one may be the very worst for another. By encouragement, the *good* way may grow into the *better* way, while the *better* may be forced into the *worse* way in obedience to the demands of some pet theory. The one or the other will result from supervision as it may be wise or unwise. That superintendent performs his duties best, who makes the most of the individual excellencies of his teachers. No poor teacher can be

molded into a better one by constantly hammering at his defects. The better methods must be so presented as to commend themselves to the teacher's judgment, that he may digest them and make them a part of his very being, crowding off as useless what had before been a part of his life. Thus are defects most surely remedied. The farmer will continue to use his old-fashioned plow or reaper until convinced that his interests demand better machinery, and then the old gives place to the new, and the new, under a strong hand guided by a consenting mind, answers the expectations of its owner. Firm conviction in the superiority of any method is absolutely essential to its successful use, and he, who works after another's plan, all the while feeling it to be the plan of another and not his own, works blindly, heartlessly, and unsuccessfully. In brief, it is the superintendent's duty to compel the judgment of his teachers rather than their actions.

The relation of the teacher to the pupil in some measure resembles that of the superintendent to the teacher, and, in the main, the hints thrown out above may be of value in considering the teacher's duties. He must allow the freedom which he claims. He must convince rather than compel. That course is best for the pupil which makes the most of his individual excellencies. The conscious accomplishment of something gives the pupil strength, and that he may have the fullest degree of consciousness, the method of accomplishment must be of his own choosing.

The teacher must be neither a taskmaster nor an overseer; neither a watch nor a spy. The higher plane which the teacher is expected to occupy, will not warrant tyranny, but will demand considerate exercise of authority. In attempting to obtain from a pupil the definition of Republic, the question was asked, "Is this school a Republic?" The answer was prompt, "No, sir; it is an Empire." The reason assigned for this opinion was creditable to the teacher—"Since the pupils have no voice in the selection of their teacher."

But the thought came unbidden, and would not be checked, that, in other schools I had seen, a far different and less creditable reason might have been drawn from the pupil's experience. There is certainly danger that the consciousness of superiority in intellectual and in physical power, may lead to such exercise of power as will betray the lack of real moral superiority. Always in the presence of inferiors, it will not be strange if the

teacher assumes too much, and becomes inconsiderate of the feelings of his pupils.

The teacher's ambition to excel is laudable when proper means of gratification are employed. One may rise to an envied height by making stepping-stones of the minds and hearts of his pupils —mere stepping-stones. The teacher raises himself by crushing down his pupils. The better way is to kindle such enthusiasm in them as that they will raise the teacher in triumph, and bear him forth upon their shoulders, himself an unwilling participant. With the good of the pupil constantly in mind, the thought of personal aggrandizement can never arise. Schools are organized for the good of the pupils, and any other thought than this is unworthy the true teacher.

The pupil should have the benefit of every doubt that may hang upon his case. The teacher does not need it, for his position gives him the advantage already, and the pupil may be greatly profited by such indulgence. The chief danger in the administration of a graded system of schools seems to me to lie right here—the teacher fears that granting the benefit of the doubt to the pupil may diminish his average of promotions, and some are thus kept in the shadow of discouragement that the teacher may stand high upon this false scale of success. I say *false scale*, for what can be found in high averages that will compensate for the loss of heart on the part of those whose absence contributes to the fancied success. It is worth far more to have given a noble impulse to some disheartened *one* than to be able to parade the high standing of *ninety and nine*. The teacher's aim should be to make the most of the unpromising material placed in his hands, by no means depriving himself of the luxury of enjoyment furnished by the many promising pupils.

The teacher should so present the subjects under discussion as to make these rather than himself prominent in the mind of the pupil. Many teachers win the love of their pupils, and mold them at will through the constraining influence of love, but the center of this influence is in the person of the teacher and its circumference within the teacher's presence. The relation between teacher and pupil is of such a nature as to make this personal influence, good in itself, unsatisfactory.

The teacher, toward whom I cherished the warmest affection, never inspired me with a love of study. The one who did me most good, clothed himself so completely with his subject that I have not lost one particle of interest in the branches of which he

was the embodiment, although all matters of a purely personal nature have been entirely forgotten. Do not understand me as speaking slightingly of the value of personal attachments, but I would urge the sinking of the teacher in matter taught, so that the pupil may be won to his studies rather than to him who leads him through them. Teachers should be so in love with the work they have to do as to feel a disregard of the subjects taught as a personal affront. The pupil as a pupil should never be able to dissociate the teacher from the matter taught. Outside the school-room he may be a friend with a friend; in the school-room a learner in the presence of superior wisdom, the height and depth of which it must be his ambition to compass. The teacher who loses himself in his subject, wields an influence that is not bounded by the limits of his personal presence. These considerations enforce this great duty of the teacher—to kindle enthusiasm that shall ensure the vigorous prosecution of the work he begins even to the end of the pupil's life.

SOME REASONS FOR CONCLUDING THAT EDUCATION IS A SCIENCE.

BY JOHN OGDEN, GAMBIER, O.

I. *Those drawn from the nature of the subject itself.*

These will appear sufficiently conspicuous, (1) by a careful analysis of its truths and principles in and of themselves; and (2) by noting the relations these truths and principles sustain one to another, and to those of kindred sciences, as they arrange themselves into groups and systems.

Science is generalized knowledge pertaining to any given subject, concerning which there is a sufficient number of leading and well attested facts and principles, to define and establish its identity. Or, more practically, science is an assemblage of facts and principles, pertaining to any given subject, so classified and arranged, that they may be conveniently learned, easily remembered, and readily imparted to others.

Education, considered as a science, will answer either of these claims or conditions:

1st. Because there is a sufficient number of acknowledged facts and principles connected with this subject, to establish its iden-

tity, and to distinguish it from all others, as a system of knowledge.

2d. Because these facts and principles may be so classified and arranged as to be conveniently learned, easily remembered, and readily communicated to others.

Now about these last two propositions, there may be some dispute, *i. e.*, some may not agree to the statements they contain. But, without presuming to be egotistical in the matter, I may be allowed to state, that I fully believe them; and unless some one condescends to contradict them, I am going right on as though they were universally accepted. Other reasons will be given, however, further on.

II. *Reasons drawn from analogy or comparison.*

Let the facts and principles of this science be carefully noted and compared with those of other sciences of kindred importance. Take, for example, the science of chemistry. Here the facts and principles—the elements of all science, and in this case but recently discovered and acknowledged—are based upon the nature of material substances, the changes that may be wrought upon them, either singly or in masses, by bringing them together in different proportions and under different circumstances, and the laws regulating these combinations and their resulting products.

The discovery of these laws, as far as they are known, is the result of investigation and experiment; and hence these facts and principles, or rather our knowledge concerning them, is subject to slight changes from time to time, as subsequent discovery may determine.

It will be observed, therefore, that in both these respects, the analogy holds good. To illustrate: We may combine, chemically, in certain proportions, three common substances, viz., oil, water, and potash, or an alkali of any kind (none of these substances being elementary): the product is a well known compound, useful in the arts, and unlike either of the original substances, and capable of producing given results. Vary these proportions, and you change the character of the product correspondingly.

In like manner we may take a given amount of mathematics, mental science, and language, for instance, (none of them being simple or elementary,) and combine them into a mental solution, so to speak, and we shall have a certain compound of intelligence, capapble of producing definite results—observable either

by the senses or consciousness—both in the mind itself, and on surrounding objects. Change, while in process of solution, or learning, any one or all the ingredients, either in quality or degree, and you vary the compound accordingly. Leave them all out, and you will have a blank, as far, at least, as this kind of knowledge or power is concerned—such, for instance, as is actually witnessed in minds void of knowledge or understanding.

This analogy, it will be seen, is not the strongest that could be selected. It is not so intended. It fails in several important points; nevertheless, there is a resemblance; and the object is simply to state those resemblances, however weak or however strong they may be.

But take a more apt illustration from botanical or agricultural science; and it will be noticed that the analogy grows stronger, as we approach substances possessing organic life. Here we shall see more clearly the nature of teaching or educating, as an art whose existence is founded upon scientific principles.

The soil is known to contain certain ingredients that go to nourish the growing plant. Afford these substances or ingredients in right proportions to any given plant, and you promote its growth, and secure its healthiest maturity. Vary them in proportion, or withhold any or all, and you produce a corresponding change in the health and growth, and it may be in the fibre and fruit of the plant; or the supply of any one or all of these ingredients may be so limited or abundant as to destroy life altogether.

So in the nourishment and treatment of the human plant. Food, light, air, exercise, and a proper temperature for the body: knowledge, science, art, study for the intellect, under healthy stimulants; hope, fear, joy, sorrow, faith, love, devotion for the soul; and you promote the healthy growth of the human being. If these are not afforded in due time and in right proportions, derangement, disease, deformity, or premature death will seize upon whichever department of our nature is subjected to the greatest neglect or abuse.

Is it wonderful, therefore, that there is so much of derangement and deformity in man, when we consider to what an extent the laws of his being have been violated? The astonishment is, that so much good survives the bad treatment; and this shows, too, what man *could* become under right treatment.

But again: Take the well known facts and principles in the science of anatomy and physiology; and here it will be observed

that the analogy is so close as actually to include a part of tl thing intended to be proved, or already proved by the foregoin The human body, for instance, is nurtured, trained, and brought maturity through the agencies of substances brought in conta with its various organs. These substances are assimilated a deposited by the ceaseless activity imposed upon the organs l their author. Any changes or departures from right propo tions, either in quality or degree, or, in other words, any viol tion of the laws of our being, is attended with unfavorable r sults, more or less disastrous, according to the nature and exte of the violation.

The mind or intellect of man has also its appetites and acti ties, and, superadded to these, its likes and dislikes—these regulated by certain fixed laws. To accommodate this dema or appetite, there are, in the world of knowledge and scien exact kinds and exact proportions, adapted to every stage awakening and growth of every individual mind, however gr the diversity, and the right kind of exercise to promote t growth, from the very earliest stage of existence to maturity a decay of all that is mortal, and to introduce the residue into t presence chamber of Omnipotence, there to renew the grow and perfection of power under the most favorable circu stances.

The same is true of man's spiritual nature, or his soul, so as this may be considered separate and distinct from his men or intellectual constitution; for God has not, in all his doma created a single want or appetite that has not its appropri supply at hand.

The science of education teaches us the nature of these wa and of their supply, and *how*, as an art, rightly to adjust th so that the greatest possible amount of development and grov may be secured thereby.

In our next, we propose to consider some of the reasons dra from the importance of the subject *per se*.

TEACHING lays under contribution all science and all art working out the grandest end that human conception ever re ized—the perfection of the race.—WICKERSHAM.

ENGLISH GRAMMAR.—No. V.

BY GEORGE S. ORMSBY.

It is a remark of Prof. Henry N. Day, that the "object of the study of a foreign language is to learn how to educe the thought from the form of words in which it is embodied; but, in the study of one's own tongue, the object is to learn how to put thought into language."

This remark corresponds with what has been said in the foregoing articles. In a foreign and inflected language, the mind has chiefly to do with forms, in order to obtain thought; but in the English language the great object is to *use* words so as to present thought.

Use is the central idea, both in synthesis and in analysis. In synthesis, we use words to express thought; and, in analysis, we show how words have been *used* to express thought.

Whether we are concerned with the ordinary uses of words, or with what grammarians have termed accidents, or accidental properties, the mind, if it be conscious of intelligent action, is, to a greater or less extent, contemplating the *use* of words. The truth of this proposition, I shall endeavor to make clear, by attempting to answer the question, What is case?

The word case, from the Latin *casus*, originally meant *a falling*. The nominative was indicated by a vertical line, and was called *rectus casus*, *right case*. The other cases were indicated by lines more or less oblique, and were called *obliqui casus*, *oblique cases*. The word, as used in English grammar, evidently retains none of its original meaning. The following definitions have been given by some of our most popular authors:

"Cases are *modifications* that *distinguish* the relations of nouns or pronouns to other words."——"The nominative case is that *form* or *state* of the noun or pronoun, which usually denotes the subject of a finite verb."—GOULD BROWN.

"Case is a *modification* of the noun to *distinguish* its relation to other words."—BURTT.

"Case *denotes* the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words."—GREENE.

"Case is that *property* which *distinguishes* the relations of nouns and pronouns to other words in a sentence."—QUACKENBOS.

"Case is that *property* of nouns and pronouns which *shows* how they are used in the construction of sentences."—KERL.

"Case *distinguishes* the relation of a noun to some verb, preposition, or other noun."—HART.

"Case is the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words."——"The possessive case is the *use* of a noun or pronoun to denote ownership, etc."—HARVEY.

"Case is the *state* or *condition* of the noun with respect to other words in the sentence."——"The nominative case denotes the name of an object simply, or as that of which something is affirmed."—BULLIONS.

It will be seen that some call case a *modification*, others a *property*, and others again do not tell us what it is, but rather what it does.

Case is not a modification. The word, modification, means change. In the sentence, *John* struck *John*, there is no change or modification in the second noun, *John*, that can distinguish it from the first.

Case is not a property. The word property means some peculiar quality of an object, something that one can think about as belonging to the object; as, The *hardness* of the diamond; but there is no peculiar quality, no property of the second noun, *John*, that can distinguish it from the first. These authors evidently do not mean to affirm that case is a modification or property in any proper sense of these terms; and the child even of ordinary mental endowments, would understand that one noun, *John*, has no modification or property that would distinguish it from another. But these authors all tell us what is substantially true respecting case. They say that case is something that "*distinguishes*", "*denotes*", or "*shows*" something.

What does it "distinguish", "denote", "show"? Not in their general, but in their particular definition, as Brown's nominative and Harvey's possessive, quoted above, these authors tell us that case distinguishes the subject, the possessor, the object, etc. What is that something, called case, which distinguishes the subject, etc.? Brown, rejecting the term, modification, in his general definition, gives substantially the truth, in part, in his particular definitions. He says the nominative, the possessive, the objective case "*is that form or state, etc.*" Harvey also, in the twilight of a better revelation, rejects his general definition, viz., that "case is the relation, etc.," and says, "The nominative, the possessive, the objective, and the case absolute *is the use of that noun, etc.*"

Now if we substitute Harvey's word *use* for Brown's word *state*, we shall have a tolerably correct definition of case. This will further appear from the following considerations.

The words *he*, *his*, *him*, may be used in the same sentence to represent the same person: *he* represents the person as the chief

subject of thought, *his* as a possessor, and *him* as an object. These three words have been called different forms of the same pronoun. These different forms indicate respectively the subject of thought, the possessor, and the object. The *use* of these pronouns also would indicate the same thing. In the ungrammatical sentence, *Him and me* went to the city, the use of *him* and *me* indicates the subject of thought.

In the sentence, *John* gave *John's* hat to *John*, the use of the first noun *John* indicates the subject. The form and use of the second noun *John's* indicate the possessor. The use of the third noun *John* indicates the object. It is then the *form* or *use* of the noun or pronoun which "distinguishes", "denotes", or "shows" the "subject", the "possessor", the "object", etc. The truth of this will appear to any one who will consult his own consciousness. If this is true, then, case is a *form* or *use*.

But before presenting a formal definition, a single remark should be made respecting the number of cases. The majority of our standard authors make four cases. They claim to name but three; but they really name four, viz., the nominative, possessive, objective, and nominative independent or absolute. This latter, the nominative independent, is a distinct case, by whatever name it may be called, whether independent case, absolute case, or nominative independent. There are then four cases, or four distinct and well defined *uses* of the noun or pronoun. There are two forms of the noun and three forms of the prououn.

With these remarks, as to what case is, and as to the number of cases, the following is suggested as a comprehensive definition of case: Case is that form or use of the noun or pronoun which indicates the subject of thought, the possessor, or the object of an action or relation. It is also the use of a noun or pronoun, independent of any relation to the sentence, or of any governing word.

It will be seen that this is not only a general, but a particular definition of each case—the nominative, possessive, objective, and the independent; and they may be read from it, thus: The nominative case is that form or use of the noun or pronoun which indicates the subject of thought. The possessive case is that form or use of the noun or pronoun which indicates the possessor. In a similar way read the objective and the independent cases, omitting that part of the general definition which does not apply to them.

When Brown says "Case is a form which denotes", he says

what is true, so far as the personal pronoun and the possessive case of the noun are concerned; but what is not true, in respect of the nominative, objective, and independent cases of the noun. When Harvey says "Case is a use", he says what is always true with regard to this subject; but it is not the whole truth; sometimes the form denotes—always the use. Case is, therefore, a *form* or *use*. When Brown says "Case is a state", he says what is not true. The word state, as used here, means condition or position; and the position of a word, in the English sentence, does not generally, if ever, denote what is claimed for case.

In concluding this series of articles, it is proper to remark that established use is the law of language; and that this is true not only in the province of syntax, but also in grammatical nomenclature and definition. A name is a conventional term, so also is an established definition; and no one has any right materially to change the one or the other. But when an author fails to use language to express the truth which, in his own mind, is dimly seen, it is the right of any one so to change the phraseology that the truth may appear.

That there are errors in the above definitions of case, appears from the fact that the language is contradictory. Case can not be, at the same time, a modification, a property, a relation, a use. These words have no kindred meaning, but in one essential point these definitions all agree; and, in this respect, they are true. So we shall find in much that is written on the subject of English grammar. There is a vein of error running along parallel to the vein of truth, and it becomes the duty of the critic not to attempt revolution, not to suggest new and arbitrary theories which may contain more of error than the old, but to ask, with respect to every form of expression, what is true; and when that is known it should be so presented that it can not fail to be apprehended and known by others.

—— For the sake of clearness and logical consistency, it is very desirable that the term *case* be altogether discarded from English grammar, and that the term *relation* be substituted for it. This would avoid some of the absurdities which are still re-echoed from one grammar to another. English nouns have six relations—subjective, objective, possessive, appositional, predicative, and independent.—T. E. Suliot.

SPELLING.—II.

BY W. WATKINS.

Methods: First Reader Pupils.

Our object is now to make the pupil perfectly familiar with the written forms of the most common words. This end might be more easily reached, had we a good primary reader with first lessons in script. No such book being at hand, we must supply the deficiency as well as we can.

Let us remember that the spelling of a word properly comes after a knowledge of the word, and acquaintance with its printed form. Preparatory to teaching the child to write words correctly, we must teach him to read written words.

We first write a familiar sentence from the reader upon the board, in letters not too widely different from Roman type. We call upon the class to read it. In reading they are at first assisted by their knowledge of the sentence. Pointing to each word separately, we have it distinctly pronounced in concert. This we do first in the order of the words in the sentence, then irregularly—"skipping." The class must pronounce each word exactly *when* it is pointed out, not before. Habits of order and docility in school depend upon these little matters.

If the class are slow to recognize some of the words, we begin to erase by taking away the easiest word, and practice on the remainder till all are erased.

Choosing the easiest word, we write it upon the board alone, and ask the class to pronounce it. A few efforts to get the class to pronounce the word in unison, just as it is touched by the pointer, will be found useful in cultivating *morale*. We now write the word several times upon the board, and, if we are sure of our ground, we write it in several styles, coming nearer and nearer till we reach the ordinary current hand. The class may be told that "big people" use the last style of writing.

We now again practice reading the word in concert. Here perhaps we may find opportunity to correct a faulty articulation, if noticed. Suppose the word is *cow*. How many letters in this word? Count them. Now we point to one of our Italic forms, and ask the name of the first letter. So pointing at each letter in order. Some wish to spell the word orally, but this we do not allow; the pupil must name each letter when pointed at, first in order, then skipping.

Now we will try the word, which is written just as grown people write. Same exercise.

James (one of the dullest). You may show me where *o* is? Right. I knew you could find *o*. Does it look like the *o* in your book?

Willy. Find *c*. Yes, that is *c*. How did you find it so quickly?

Fred. Find *w*? Very well.

Now see me write. What letter is this? This? This?

We now rewrite the sentence, and review.

This is long enough lesson for any class, perhaps too long. Of this the teacher must judge. There is no substitute for good judgment.

In calling upon pupils to perform any duty, it is well to call upon one of the poorest who can do it. Do not allow him to fail.

At the next lesson we write the same sentence again, review the work of the first lesson, use a new word, and so proceed, always associating the new word with those which have been learned.

At the close of a lesson, we leave one or two words as plainly and neatly written as possible upon the board for the pupils to copy. We are careful, for we notice that pupils always magnify our errors in copying.

It is perhaps best that the pupil be at once taught to write in current hand; but the teacher may, if he think best, after writing the copy, erase the connecting lines between the letters. When the circumstances admit, we would have the pupil's first effort at writing made on the board with a crayon. The hand should not touch the board.

We continue these lessons till the pupils can read writing fluently and copy sentences legibly. After the first few lessons we no longer take sentences verbatim from the book, but compose those which use words found in the reader. Still later, the pupils form sentences which the teacher writes, and they read and copy. While this is going on, the writing of the pupils may be corrected—one thing at a time—with great care and patience. The two essentials of good writing, hight and slope, should receive attention.

If it be objected that this is teaching writing rather than spelling, we answer that the child can have no knowledge of orthography till he is taught to write. During this time we have the usual exercises in oral spelling which is useful in teaching the

powers of letters, and as a review of the words which the pupil has been taught to write.

Considerable difficulties will be met in teaching average pupils to spell, and we propose to remove them, in great part, by careful and thoughtful labor in primary instruction. Let no one despise these humble and minute labors among little children: they are the foundations of exact scholarship in riper years. Do you remember the following beautiful lines from Campbell's Rainbow? They had a place many years ago in the Fourth Reader:

'Tis a picture distinctly defined
In strong and unperishing colors of mind,
A part of my being beyond my control
Beheld on the cloud but transcribed on my soul!

Such indelible impressions may be made in childhood by careful, consistent, and systematic culture.

Middletown, O.

JOTTINGS.—II.

BY W. D. HENKLE, COLUMBUS, O.

18. *Codify.* Webster's Dictionary has *cō'*-di-fȳ and cō-di-fi-cā'-tion, but Worcester's, cŏd' i-fy and cŏd-i-fi-cā' tion. Worcester's pronunciations are preferable, because they are analogous to those of *modify*, *ratify*, *typify*, *scarify*, *vivify*, *vilify*, *qualify*, *ramify*, *clarify*, *domify*, *edify*, *gratify*, *pacify*, *lenify*, *specify*, *verify*, *stratify*, *arefy*, *calefy*, *liquefy*, and *rarefy*, in which the first syllable contains in pronunciation either the short sound of *a*, *e*, *i*, or *o*. It is true, however, that the *o* is long in *glorify* and *notify*. The two dictionaries are each at fault in not indicating that *codify* is a disputed word.

19. *Efy.* The following eight words are the only words in English that end in *efy* so far as I know: *Arefy*, *calefy*, *liquefy*, *rarefy*, *stupefy*, *tepefy*, *torrefy*, and *tumefy*. Can any one increase the list? *Stupefy* is generally spelled in England "*stupify*."

20. *Quo Warranto.* How should *warranto* be pronounced? Webster's Dictionary (1859 and 1864) give the accent on *ran*, but Worcester's (1860) gives it on *war*. Webster's pronunciation agrees with the English mode of pronouncing Latin, while Worcester's does not. Worcester quotes both Smart and Webster as giving the same pronunciation as he gives himself. Did Worces-

ter make a mistake, or did the earlier editions of Webster give a pronunciation different from that given in the later editions?

21. *Tahiti* (tä-hē' tē). This island was visited by Capt. Cook in 1769. He arrived in sight of it, April 11, and anchored in Port Royal Bay on the 13th of April. On p. 24 of Kippis's Cook's Voyages, vol. 1, is the following sentence: "It was not till the 10th of the month [May] that our voyagers learned that the Indian name of the island was OTAHEITE, by which name it hath since been always distinguished."

The *O* forms no part of the name, and was correctly omitted by Bonganville, another navigator, who called the island Taiti, incorrectly, however, omitting the *h*. On p. 130, vol. II, of "Cook's Voyages" is the following sentence: "Another island was discovered on the 30th [of Nov., 1778], which is called by the natives Owhyhee." The nature of the mistake of calling "*Tahiti*" and "*Hawaii*" respectively "*Otaheite*" and "*Owhyhee*" is pointed out by the Rev. William Ellis in the fourth volume of his *Polynesian Researches*, pp. 51–2:

"Another cause of the incorrectness of the orthography of early voyagers to these islands [the Sandwich], has been a want of better acquaintance with the structure of the language, which would have prevented their substituting a compound for a single word. This is the case in the Otaheite, Otaha, and Owhyhee, which ought to be Tahiti, Tahaa, and Hawaii. The O is no part of these words, but is the preposition *of*, or belonging to; or it is the sign of the case, denoting it to be the nominative, answering to the question who or what, which would be O wai? The sign of the case being prefixed to the interrogation, the answer uniformly corresponds, as,

Nom. O wai ia aina?—What that land?
Ans. O Hawaii:—Hawaii.
Pos. No hea oe?—Of whence you?
Ans. No Hawaii: Of or belonging to Hawaii.
Obj. Hoe oe i hea?—Sailing you to where?
Ans. I Hawaii:—To Hawaii.
Mai hea mai oe?—From whence you?
Ans. Mai Hawai mai:—From Hawaii.

Any one of these, or other similar combinations, in which the word Ha-wai-i occurs, might have been given as the name of the island, with as much correctness as that which commences with the O, which appears sometimes to be a contraction of the pronoun, and is never used excepting when the word begins a sentence, and consequently is, even as a combination, not of frequent occurrence. The natives are certainly most likely to know the name of their own island; the designation they give it we have adopted, and believe that, in so doing, we have the approbation of all unprejudiced men, more than we should have had in perpetuating an error, which their discoverer, had he possessed the means of so doing, would very cheerfully have corrected."

22. *Tides.* The following statement from Ellis's Polynesia Researches, vol. I, pp. 28–9, is given as a nut for the natural philosophers to crack:

"Among the natural phenomena of the South Sea Islands, the tide is one of the most singular, and presents as great an exception to the theory of Sir Isaac Newton as is to be met with in any part of the world. The rising and falling of the waters of the ocean appear, if influenced at all, to be so in a very small degree only by the moon. The height to which the water rises, varies but a few inches during the whole year, and at no time is it elevated more than a foot, or a foot and a half. The sea, however, often rises to an unusual height, but this appears to be the effect of a strong wind blowing for some time from one quarter, or the heavy swells of the sea, which flow from different directions, and prevail equally during the time of high and low water. But the most remarkable circumstance is the uniformity of the time of high and low water. During the year, whatever be the age or situation of the moon, the water is lowest at six in the morning, and the same hour in the evening, and highest at noon and midnight. This is so well established, that the time of night is marked by the ebbing and flowing of the tide; and, in all the islands, the term for high water and for midnight is the same."

23. *Colonel.* This word is peculiar in the fact that the *l* of the printed word appears as *r* in the spoken word. Ben Johnson, Beaumont and Fletcher, and Cotgrave wrote it *coronel*, which is also the Old French, the Spanish, and the Portuguese spelling. Some trace the word to the Latin *columna*, and others to the Latin *corona*. Worcester suggests that the pronunciation comes either from the Spanish *coronel* or the Gaelic *coirneal*. But it should be remembered that the interchange or confusion of *l* and *r* is wide-spread. It is asserted that the Latin derivatives *alis* and *aris* are one and the same. The rule of choice appears to have been that *aris* was preferred when the body of the word contained *l*, and *alis* when the body of the word contained *r*; as, SatuRn*alis*, secu*Laris*, noRm*alis*, regu*Laris*, astR*alis*, stel*Laris*, pluR*alis*, lateR*alis*, etc. The first *l* in each of the words *fluvialis*, *glacialis*, *legalis*, and *letalis* seems too far away from the last to change it. The Latin *lusciniola* appears in Italian as *rosignuolo*, and in French as *rossignol*, the Low Latin *lavendula*, in English as *lavender;* the Latin *capitulum*, *epistola*, and *apostolus*, in French respectively as *chapitre*, *epitre*, and *apotre;* and from the Latin noun *cælum*, the Latin adjective *cæruleus*. The Latin *arbor* appears in Italian as *albero; cerebrum*, as *celebro; peregrinus*, as *pellegrino; altare*, as *autel; Mercurii dies*, as *mercoledi*, etc. Additional examples of the interchange of these letters are seen in some Greek compounds. In connection with what has just been cited, I make the following quotation from a footnote on p. 1692 of Lippincott's Gazetteer:

"It is stated as a curious fact, that the inhabitants of both the Sandwich and Society Islands are incapable of distinguishing between the sounds of *l* and *r*, and of *t* and *k*. This does not appear to arise so much from a defect in the organs of speech as of hearing. It is said that they can utter correctly the sounds of the letters just named, but they can not distinguish them either when

spoken by themselves or by others. It appears that the English missionaries in the Society Islands first adopted the mode of writing names like those above cited [Molokai or Morotai and Ranai or Lanai] with *t* and *r;* the Americans in the Sandwich Islands have unfortunately had recourse to a different orthography, whence arises the diversity of spelling which we find in the best works on the Polynesian Islands. In connection with this subject it may be remarked, that in other languages *t* and *c* or *k* are sometimes changed for each other. Thus, in Latin, we find *nuncius* or *nuntius; Lutetia*, the ancient name of Paris, appears to have been written also LUCETIA (in Greek, *Leuketia*) and LOTICIA (Greek, *Lotikia*)"

This explains why the "great mountain" in Hawaii is called both *Mauna-Loa* and *Mauna-Roa*. Ellis (Polynesian Researches, vol. IV, p. 465) says in his remarks on the Hawaiian language that "several of the consonants are interchangeable, particularly the *l* and *r*, *b* and *p*, and *t* and *k*."

The inability to distinguish certain sounds Max Müller (Science of Language, Second Series, p. 185) compares to color-blindness. He might have coined an analogous compound and called it *sound-deafness*. Children at first use the sound of *k* for *t* as in *tat* for *cat*, *tut* for *cut*, *tot* for *cot*, *tap* for *cap*, *tiss* for *kiss*. Müller says, "It is difficult to say whether their tongue is more at fault or their ear." The interchange of *l* and *r* is said to exist in the African and the Dravidian languages as well as in the Polynesian language.

THE KINDERGARTEN IN GERMANY.

HEIDELBERG, April 20, 1871.

FRIEND WHITE: I have made several visits to the "Kinder Garten" schools in Leipzig and Dresden, and have been so much interested that I hope I may also interest your readers by giving some account of them. They are private schools intended for children between the ages of three and six; that is, they fill the place between our primary schools and the nursery proper; and if they accomplish nothing else, serve to keep the restless little busy bodies in employment more or less useful. I think, however, you will see from my description that they must learn something, and, at any rate, will get a good preparation for beginning books.

Every week-day morning at Leipzig, I used to see small groups of little children that seemed hardly old enough to be trusted in the streets unattended, toddling along with tiny knap-

sacks strapped to their shoulders, and found by asking them that they were on the route to the "garten." When a favorable occasion came, I followed them, and found that the "garten" was two moderate-sized rooms on the ground floor of a private dwelling. Both rooms were furnished with low settees, and one had a series of low tables. The one I happened to visit first, had two teachers or nurses, as you may choose to call them, and about thirty-six pupils arranged in three equal divisions; but as the other schools were on precisely the same plan, I will continue my description as if the performances had occurred on the same day.

When I entered one of the teachers was standing at the door to receive the fresh comers, and assist them in removing their hats and shawls, while the other was seated in the centre of the room, talking to those seated about her. The talk was by no means a connected affair, being interrupted by questions on the subject and frequent "points of order." I recollect one subject was, "The Cow", and included all sorts of questions on that useful animal, running something like the following:

"What does a cow like to eat? Would a cow like to eat meat? If I had in one hand dry hay and in the other nice, fresh green grass with sweet flowers, which hand would the cow prefer? Would a cow eat bread? Would children like to eat hay or grass? What sort of food do children really like? What does the cow give us?" etc., etc.

You see it was a sort of object lesson, except that, like some of those in other lands, neither the object was present nor any thing representing it, and I am fearful that some of the pupils were drawing on their imagination as to the properties of the cow. The teacher did not receive answers from more than four or five, but seemed well satisfied to get any sort of an answer, and then resumed, "Yes, the cow likes to eat hay," etc., or else, "No, that is not correct. What does any one else say?" etc.

The manner of the teachers was charming. Except that their size indicated older years, one might have imagined that they were little girls like those seated on the forms before them. The "points of order" were settled as fast as they arose, so quietly and lovingly that all infantile contention was nipped in the bud.

After this came the lunch, and then I learned the use of the knapsacks. Every thing was done in order. The teachers distributed to each his private property, and when the repast was over, the fragments were collected on a tray, and a little stirring around was permitted.

Then came the feature that I enjoyed the most. It was a sort of a march, accompanied by singing. I can not help again noticing, with my warmest approval, that the teachers joined in every exercise and every movement. At Dresden, there were several grown-up pupils learning to be teachers, that also shared every exercise. One song was about what a soldier does. Each verse recited one of his duties, and the children showed how it was done after the manner of "Johnny Schmoker, Ich Kann Spielen." Thus they marched, and, in dumb show, drummed, carried arms, waved flags and sabres, slept on the field of battle, and, in fact, executed more motions than I supposed an ordinary soldier capable of. Of course, some of the little ones were more zealous than skillful, and especially when the refrain of the song came in, "tramp, tramp," they were apt to anticipate the time somewhat, but it was easy to see that they enjoyed the exercise to the utmost.

After a slight breathing spell, the pupils passed into the second room, and took seats around the tables to work. The highest grade of school work that I saw was writing; but in this case the pupils did not properly belong to the grade. I was informed that the fundamental principles of the founder may be expressed in the two maxims: "One thing at a time" and "Never advance to a higher step until you have mastered the lower." It is possible that these rules may have already crossed the Atlantic, and have somehow been picked up by teachers who have never heard of Froebel. From a careful examination of the work exhibited, I should say that the great object of the system is to inculcate order and give dexterity to the fingers. The work is really "manual" labor.

The youngest division was furnished with paper ruled in small squares, and, to my horror, also with awls, but the teacher assured me that no accidents ever happened. They were taught to prick holes with these awls first in lines across the paper; then up and down; and finally to follow out, by means of the squares, figures resembling the Greek borders.

The next division had bundles of jack straws, and were engaged in counting them and arranging them on the table in all sorts of figures, such as squares and houses, more or less directed by the teacher.

The oldest division was having a lesson that I do not know how to characterize. Each one had a piece of paper about four inches square. The teacher sat at the head of the table to give

directions and set the example. In the first place, she had them place the paper diagonally before them, and told them what she meant by right hand corner, left hand corner, upper and lower corners, and the centre. Then she questioned them to be certain that each knew what was meant. Then she told them to fold in the right hand corner as far as the centre, next the left hand corner, then the upper, and finished the new square by folding in the lower corner. She was a long while doing this, inspecting each stage of the process, and drilling them on the use of the terms by frequently changing the position of the paper.

With the new square she proceeded as before, and, after many foldings, by a process which it is impossible to describe without diagrams, finally succeeded in producing a contrivance which might be called a table.

This ended the morning's work, or at least the first section of it; for, as a matter of course, with such small children the school time is varied as much as possible, and I understood that two hours is considered a half a day.

Another exercise is made with black paper, prepared for the special purpose by being cut in parallel lines nearly across its face. Into this they are taught to insert white strips, and thereby produce a great number of different designs, which may be called curious, if not beautiful. This seemed to be the crowning effort of the school, but I was more impressed with the ingenuity of the inventor than with the value of the exercise. I had almost forgotten to say that the awl process terminates in producing raised figures on colored plain paper, which are thought to resemble flowers and leaves, and sufficiently beautiful to be used as book marks, covers for needle cases, etc. I believe also, though I did not see the process, that some attempt is made to teach rudimentary drawing.

During the recess I captured a bright faced little girl who had "lots" to tell me about her mamma and the baby. After we had finished our chat in German, the teacher said the child was from Boston, and so we had another chat in the vernacular. The children were all very engaging, perhaps the more so to me because of the little chap I left at home.

I really do not know how much is claimed for these schools, but the little ones looked so happy and so thoroughly satisfied with their occupation that I was delighted in watching them. At all events they are out of harm's way (awls being excepted),

and have something to keep them out of mischief. I was glad not to see any signs of books around, but was rather surprised that there were so few slates visible. On the whole, I should be glad to have these schools as a part of our institutions as they are beginning to be of Northern Germany. In Southern Germany they are very rare. In Berlin there is a Kinder-Garten Normal School, but I believe it is almost the only one of its kind in Europe. Truly yours,

SIDNEY A. NORTON.

NATIONAL NORMAL SCHOOL.

E. E WHITE—*Dear Sir:* It has occurred to me that a statement of a few facts in regard to this school may be of interest to many of your readers. I feel so much encouraged by the increasing report of the high success which has almost invariably attended the labors of the teachers who have gone out from us, in carrying out the plans of school management obtained here, that I can not repress the desire to give these facts publicity through your widely circulated journal.

A new era is surely dawning in our schools. The days of suspicion and force are passing away. Thousands of our trained teachers are successfully practicing "the better way." I believe —I *know*—that it is worse than useless—it is absurd—to try to compel children or any body else to do right. I believe—I *know*—that there are resources enough in the human soul and out of it to make study attractive, the school a joy, and the school room a paradise. I believe—I *know*—that the large majority of sensible *young* teachers can learn how to make these resources available, and thus to govern their schools without resorting to coercion in any form, and especially in trying to compel children to be diligent and well-behaved. Instead of compulsion being necessary to secure regular attendance in a good school, children will have to be compelled to stay away from it. This fact is reported in many instances.

Now our Normal School claims to be managed on just such principles, and thus is enabled to impart so much power and enthusiasm to the majority of its pupil teachers that they can manage their schools without corporal punishment or other means of coercion. The larger number of the multitude that have been trained here (not less in the aggregate than 12,000), report this

year, more than any previous year, the highest success in relying entirely on the resources of attraction and the normal methods and plans of making these resources effective, in exciting a higher and more persistent degree of energy in study and good will toward their schools than they have ever before known. Each one of hundreds is flattering himself or herself that his own or her own is the best and most delightful school in existence,—a very healthful and excusable condition of mind, all teachers will admit.

We do not here believe in the dogma, asserted with so much unction by some of the state normal schools, that "*submission to authority is a necessary part of a young teacher's training.*" We do not practice any such domination here as this dogma would require, nor do we believe it necessary in any school unless it be a reform school. Nor do our pupil teachers go out with the idea that submission to their authority is the main thing to be attained in their schools. I do believe in a higher law than that of physical force, and every year's experience in the training of teachers, with their increasing success, confirms me in the correctness of my position and the attainableness of these ends, and encourages us all in our efforts to make our schools nurseries of goodness and love, rather than prison-houses whose only joy is that of release.

Large numbers of teachers, who had spent a term or more with us, and have had excellent success in the practice of normal methods, have returned this term to prosecute their preparation for a more thorough work and higher positions in their profession. Many have induced their friends or pupils to return with them. Our present daily attendance is over 500 pupils, while the entire annual enrollment for five terms will exceed 1500 different pupils. Our coming six weeks' term promises to be the largest institute ever held in this country. We are making suitable arrangements to accommodate all who come.

We shall this year bestow more time and attention than ever before, upon school management,—on principles of attraction rather than force,—and we hope to infuse the true spirit into many who shall visit us, as well as to gather from them renewed energy for the prosecution of our common work. We shall also sustain a wide range of class instruction in all the common branches and in many of the higher branches for all who desire to study or review. Very truly, your fellow laborer,

Lebanon, O., May 11, 1871. A. Holbrook.

Editorial Department.

——We take pleasure in calling special attention to that portion of Mr. Pickard's article, which discusses the relation of the superintendent to the teacher. The views presented are both true and important, and, coming from one of the most successful school superintendents in the country, they are worthy of high consideration. They agree with the positions taken by us in a late editorial on "The Freedom of the Teacher", and we are glad to have such strong backing. We like the idea of considering the public-school business as a *partnership*, in which school-officers, teachers, and patrons are the partners. There seems to be a growing tendency to make the teacher a mere agent, working under instructions, and without partnership rights. The fact that teachers are partners in the business, shows that they have rights which the other partners can not assume. Mr. Pickard promises us another paper on this subject.

——We are not quite satisfied with Mr. Ormsby's definition of case. He says, "Case is that form or use of the noun or pronoun", etc. Does not the use of a noun or pronoun include its form? The term use can not here mean the simple *act* of employing a noun, as this shows or indicates nothing. It must also include the *mode* in which the noun is used, and this includes form, position, and whatever else denotes its use. Hence we would omit the words "form or" in Mr. Ormsby's definition, making it read, "Case is that use of a noun or pronoun which indicates the subject of thought, the possessor, or the object of an action or relation." Nor are we quite satisfied with this definition. The prime fact in the English sentence is the *relation* of the noun or pronoun to other words. Now should the term case be applied to the *relation itself*, or to that which *denotes* the relation? This is the root of the matter. If case is that which *denotes* the relation, Mr. Ormsby's definition is a good one, since the *use* of a noun or pronoun, including its form, position, etc., does show its relation to other words. But we prefer to apply the term case to the *relation* itself—to go back of the expression to the thing expressed; back of the grammar to the logic. The first requisite in the mastery of the English substantive is to recognize its relation to other words in the sentence. The next step is to determine its appropriate form in each relation, and this is easy since the noun has but two case forms and the pronoun but three. The application of the term case to the relation gives a definite and simple definition and the number of cases is easily determined. Mr. Ormsby says "there are four distinct and well defined *uses* of the noun or pronoun", and hence there are *four* cases. If by the term "uses" is meant the modes of indicating relation, form is one use or case, position another, etc., and the number of cases is indefinite. If the mere employment of a noun in a given relation is its use then there are as many uses or cases as there are relations. But, as Prof

Suliot claimed, the English noun is used in *six* distinct relations to other words. It may denote the subject, the predicate (Iron is a *metal*), the possessor, the object of an action or relation, the appositive object, and the independent object. If each of these relations is called a case, the English substantive has clearly six cases. We make these comments, not in the spirit of controversy, but with the view of eliciting a further discussion of these points by Mr. Ormsby. Let us not stop short of the plain, simple truth, if it can be seen and stated.

—— THE last annual report of Hon. Abram B. Weaver, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of New York, contains an interesting discussion of the subject of "Compulsory Attendance at School." After stating briefly the argument in favor of the compulsory system, he reviews its history and success. It has been thoroughly tested in Norway, Sweden, Denmark, Switzerland, except in four cantons, Prussia, where it has been in force for a century, and in several other German States. The success of the system in increasing school attendance in these countries is questioned. Mr. Weaver thinks that the well-nigh universal education of Prussia is due more to a sincere and unanimous belief in the value of education than to the compulsory law. Universal education is provided for "in a plan which employs every known facility and adopts every discovered improvement." The work of instruction is intrusted to a corps of thoroughly trained teachers, and the supervision of the system commands the services of the best talent of the nation. The high estimation in which the schools are held secures attendance. The example of Holland is cited as a confirmation of this view. School attendance in Holland has never been enjoined by law, and "yet every adult citizen can read and write." The success of compulsion is not observable in Switzerland. Education is as nearly universal in the cantons of Geneva, Switz, Uri, and Unterwalden, where the voluntary system prevails, as in the other cantons. Mr. Weaver next contrasts the school attendance of New York and Prussia. He presents statistics showing that in 1870 "more than eighty (?) per cent. of all children within the State, between the ages of five and twenty-one years, attended some public or private school, and those enrolled in public schools attended for an average of four months. He estimates the attendance of youth in New York, between six and fourteen (the school period in Prussia), as high as ninety per cent. The number of pupils enrolled in the school in 1870 was greater than the whole number of persons in the State, between the ages of six and sixteen. These examples and figures certainly make a creditable showing for the voluntary system, and we hope that some competent person will pursue the investigation. Let us have the facts. The compulsory system has been attempted in France, Austria, Spain, Portugal, and Italy, but "has wholly or partially failed." Austria has again adopted the system, and Turkey now enjoins school attendance. Compulsion in education has never been adopted in the United States, except in the form of laws relating to truant and vagrant children, and even these laws have not generally been executed. Mr. Weaver urges that our schools should be made better "before resorting to the doubtful experimen of compulsion."

——SINCE writing the above, we have read an article in the *Connecticut School Journal*, by Hon. David N. Camp, late State School Superintendent of Connecticut, in which reference is also made to the experience of countries that have tried the compulsory system. Mr. Camp cites the opinion of one of the Assistant Education Commissioners of England, who, after a careful examination of the Prussian school system, said: "The schooling is compulsory only in name. The school has taken so deep a root in the habits of the German people that, were the laws repealed to-morrow, no one doubts that the schools would continue as full as they now are." As evidence that this school interest is not due to the compulsory law, it is stated that the children of Frankfort, where there has been no such law, are as regularly sent to school as those in any other town in Germany. Mr. Arnold, the English Assistant Commissioner who examined the school system of Switzerland, doubts whether the compulsory law is "ever really executed at all", and he believes that the making of school instruction in Vaud compulsory "has not added one iota to its prosperity." These statements by intelligent observers certainly deserve consideration. It is an easy and frequent mistake to attribute results to wrong causes. The nearly universal education in the older Northern States of this country would doubtless be attributed to a compulsory system, if such a system were in existence here. We have not the data for an accurate comparision of school attendance in these States and in Germany. It may be true that education is not as general here, but we are inclined to the opinion that the mass of children receive, on the average, as many years of schooling. We fear that a law requiring school attendance for three or four months each year for six to eight years, would reduce the school-going period. Many parents would accept the requirement of the law as a *measure* of their duty in the education of their children. Is it not a fact that the American children in our public schools attend from two to three years longer than the German? To what extent is the early withdrawal of German children due to the influence of the compulsory law of Germany?

——IN our recent editorial on the conduct of teachers' institutes, we said nothing respecting the evening sessions. Our view is, that, while the day sessions should be largely devoted to the professional needs of teachers, the evening exercises should be made of interest to the people generally. The teacher should be lost in the citizen, and education should be considered in its wider and more popular aspects. Scientific and even literary lectures may have a place, and the exercises may be varied with music, readings, etc. But while the exercises are made attractive and entertaining to bring out the people, it should be remembered that this is not the *end*, but a means. The great object is to impart better views of education, and to create a livelier public interest and a heartier coöperation in the work of school improvement. The evening sessions of an institute should be made revival and campaign meetings, and the main exercises should bear directly and potently on the great questions of school progress. What is needed to make education universal is to create a universal appreciation of its value. This requires continued discussion and

agitation. The old arguments must be presented in a new light, and old principles must be enforced by new illustrations. Never has the campaign character of the evening institute been more important than now. Every institute held in Ohio the present year, should place the need of advanced school legislation strongly before the people. The members of the next General Assembly should hear no uncertain sound. The popular demand for a forward school movement should be emphatic.

—— Hon. Ira Divoll, State School Superintendent of Missouri, has correct views on the text-book question. At the very outset of his promising administration he issued a circular, in which he squarely opposes "state uniformity", and as squarely advocates district or township uniformity. He says:

"Efforts have been made from time to time to establish general uniformity in the use of the same text-books throughout a whole State. I do not believe that such an arrangement is practicable even if it were desirable, nor that it is desirable even if it were practicable."

"While I am utterly opposed to any attempt on the part of state authorities to force the use of any particular text-books upon the people, I regard it as absolutely essential to the best interests of the schools that one series, and one alone, should be used in all the schools under any given board of education. Every township board throughout the whole State is empowered to determine what text-books shall be used in the schools under its charge, and the patrons of the schools should see that the board prescribe but one set and make no frequent changes."

THOROUGHNESS IN THE COMMON BRANCHES.

A few months since we published a contribution, entitled "Plain Criticisms on Our Schools", and called attention to the charge therein that there was a lack of thoroughness in the common branches. We hoped to get a response from the teachers of our high schools, but are disappointed. We have, however, received the report of Supt. Catlin, of New Carlisle, O., in which this criticism upon graded schools is expressed in the strongest terms. He asserts that he knows from personal observation, that our schools are "sadly failing" in the duty of imparting "a thorough knowledge of the common branches"; that pupils "are put through these branches at railroad speed", to reach the higher studies, and that we are erecting a school system, beautiful to the eye, but "with no adequate foundation." He thinks that a thorough investigation of this subject by an independent, special committee would make this failure patent; and, as the fault is not in the system, but in its execution, the remedy would be easy.

It will generally be conceded, we think, that our schools are not sufficiently thorough in teaching the common branches, but what is the cause of this result? Why, for example, do not the lower schools make better readers? Is it because there is not time enough devoted to this branch? This may be true, but the great defect is *in the teaching*. Pupils may be kept reading till doomsday, but unless they are properly taught, they will not be good readers. The prime remedy for the defect complained of, is *better teaching*, and this necessitates *better teachers*.

But good reading involves a clear comprehension of the thought and the

feeling of the emotion, to be expressed. Hence the failure in reading a given passage may be due to a lack of ability rather than to a want of drill. Children may be taught to read well pieces within their understanding, but no amount of teaching will impart the ability to read expressively what lies beyond their grasp. This suggests that what appears to be a lack of thoroughness in teaching, may be a lack of *brains*, or rather a lack of mental maturity on the part of the pupil. The *elements* of the common branches may be mastered by the average pupil before he has reached his sixteenth year, but thoroughness in the length and breadth of these branches is impossible. The fact is that arithmetic, geography, and English grammar contain much knowledge that the young pupil can not grasp, and an attempt at "thoroughness" in this direction must end in failure. The time now devoted to the study of the abstruse subjects which are crowded into "Higher Arithmetics", is largely wasted, because their mastery requires an intellectual grasp and power, which the pupils do not possess.

The same is true in the study of English grammar. The sad lack of success in this branch is the occasion of great disquietude among teachers. There is an almost universal quarrel with the text-books. The real difficulty, as it seems to us, lies in the fact that English grammar as a science is not a child's study. The parsing of the words in an English sentence is not so much a question of form as of *logic*. The thought must be analyzed, and the relations of its elements to each other must be clearly seen. It is true that the English noun has two case forms, and the pronoun three, that the noun, pronoun, and verb have each two number forms, and that the personal pronouns have person forms and gender forms, but these grammatical forms assist very little in the parsing of English words. This explains why Latin grammar can be mastered so much earlier than English. The former is concerned with the forms of words; the latter depends on a logical analysis of the thought. So much of English grammar as relates to and depends on the form of words, also the recognition and naming of the parts of speech, may be taught to children, but even this may best be done through composition—through the actual use of words in sentence-making. The needed step to secure thoroughness in English grammar, is the *postponing* of the study to a later period in the school course. Mr. Shaw was not far from the truth last month, when he associated English grammar with "Schuyler's Logic."

We, too, urge thoroughness in the common branches, but we wish to see the right kind of thoroughness. It is not necessary that pupils be limited to the common branches until they have mastered all that authors have written on these subjects. What is needed is thoroughness in the essential elements. Let our schools strive to make intelligent, natural readers. Let spelling be thoroughly and persistently taught that children shall be able to spell well before they are twelve years of age. Let pupils be taught to write plainly and neatly, and the earlier the better after the age of seven years. Let them be taught to speak and write correctly, not by studying technical grammar, but by daily drills in speaking and writing; let oral and written composition go hand in hand with reading and spelling—and let this be done so skillfully and faithfully that children may be able to write an intelligent, well-expressed, a-

neatly written letter at twelve years of age. Let the elements of drawing, vocal music, arithmetic, geography, and, in due time, of English grammar be mastered. Let all this, and whatever else is truly elementary and fundamental in education, be taught with skill and with conscientious fidelity and thoroughness.

When the higher course is reached, let the elementary be continued. At each stage of his ascent, let the pupil take a review—it will often be a *new* view—of what is below. At least, let the elementary studies receive such attention in our high schools that their pupils may graduate better spellers, readers, writers, geographers, arithmeticians, and grammarians than they were when they entered. This is now true of some high schools, and it ought to be true of all.

PUBLIC EDUCATION IN THE SOUTH.

An earnest invitation to address the State Teachers' Association of Georgia at its recent meeting at Columbus, afforded us an opportunity to observe the drift of southern sentiment on the subject of public education, and to gain more definite information respecting the present condition and prospects of the school systems which have been inaugurated. We not only addressed public audiences at Columbus and Atlanta, but we conversed with a considerable number of the leading citizens of Georgia, and also with several well-informed citizens of Alabama, Tennessee, and South Carolina.

What we saw and learned re-assured us that, whatever may be the present opposition and obstacles, the people of the South are taking hold of the duty of public education, and that the work will be prosecuted heartily and with success. There is a deep conviction among all thoughtful men that the future prosperity of the Southern States must be built on new foundations, of which universal education must be the corner-stone. The present mode of tilling the soil is quite as exhaustive of its fertility as the old system of slave labor, which had exhausted full half of the land cultivated, and was rapidly ruining the other half. The colored people are generally homeless and unsettled. They usually stay on a plantation but a single year, which they generally cultivate for a share of the crop, taking, of course, all that is possible from the soil and adding nothing to it. They dwell in the rudest hovels, which, being only a means of temporary shelter, they do not care to improve. It is not difficult to see that this state of things can not long continue. How this labor problem is to be solved perhaps the wisest do not see, but the conviction is widening that the *schoolmaster* is to be the chief agent; that, whatever else may be important, a thorough system of public education is essential and vital.

As evidence of this state of feeling, we mention the fact that our strongest utterances respecting the necessity of universal education, were heartily applauded. At Columbus we spoke with Rev. Dr. Landrum, of Savannah, and Hon. Joseph Hodgson, State School Superintendent of Alabama—both of whom are thoroughly southern in feeling. We have seldom heard more un-

qualified and earnest pleas for general education, and the advantages of public schools were ably presented. Mr. Hodgson advocated the special training of teachers by the State, and also laws compelling school attendance. We spoke at Atlanta by invitation of some fifty of the prominent citizens of the city. We were cordially received by a large and intelligent audience, who gave the public school policy an emphatic approval. We were followed by ex-Gov. Brown who strongly enforced the duty of the State to educate. He said that the proper education of sovereigns had always been regarded necessary, and, since in this country the people are all sovereigns, education must be universal.

The state school systems, organized in the South, are making hopeful progress. The school law of Georgia, passed by the last General Assembly, is, on the whole, excellent, and it is believed that, with a few amendments, it will prove acceptable and efficient. Its most serious defect is the want of an explicit provision for local taxation to continue the schools after the small state appropriation is expended. This power is so questionable that its exercise will probably not be attempted. This will prove a serious obstacle, and, in some counties, it may delay the putting of the system into practical operation. Gen. J. R. Lewis, the State School Commissioner, is a competent and faithful officer, and he has entered upon his work with great energy; but, owing to political prejudice against the present State Government and other like causes, he is not receiving the coöperation necessary for satisfactory success. He wisely encouraged the election of county and township school officers, who have the confidence of the native white population, and the administration of the system is generally in the hands of intelligent men. It will be successful in spite of all hindrances. A good system of public schools has been in efficient operation in Savannah for years, with an increasing measure of public confidence and patronage. Aided by the Peabody fund, Columbus organized public schools some three years since, and, though the opposition was at first very intense, the system is now quite popular. The schools are patronized by many wealthy families. We learned the suggestive fact that there were some 230 vacant houses in the city when the system was organized, but a recent canvass reported not more than half a dozen, and these were all rented!

The school system of Alabama was organized earlier than that of Georgia, and is more fully in operation. Under the earnest leadership of State Superintendent Hodgson, the people are moving to its support. The prospects are encouraging. A thorough reorganization of the State University is now in progress, and it is proposed to open a normal department on a liberal basis.

School affairs in Tennessee are becoming more hopeful. When the present dominant party of the State came into power, it abolished the new school system, organized in 1867, and restored the old county system. For a time, the progress of the schools, except in a few localities, was arrested; but a strong reaction is in progress. The State earnestly desires immigration, but desirable immigrants will not settle where there are no good schools. Several counties have appointed efficient superintendents, and the schools are making progress. We predict that state supervision and other agencies essential to the successful management of public schools, will soon be restored.

What has been said of the free school movement in the three States visited

by us may be taken, we think, as a fair representation of its condition in the South generally. The school systems organized are necessarily making slow progress, since they have to be built up from the very foundation, involving an expenditure which, in the present financial condition of the people, is a heavy burden. There is also much opposition. But as we propose hereafter to consider the hindrances to free schools in the South, we close by re-urging upon Congress the duty of aiding the Southern States in the inauguration of universal education, by the conditional appropriation of money or lands. What is needed to hasten the success of the great work is not national coercion, but generous assistance.

A REMARKABLE MEMORY.

We recently assisted in testing the memory of Daniel McCartney, of Cardington, Ohio, which, in some respects, is more remarkable than any memory mentioned in treatises on mental science. Mr. McCartney was born in 1817, and he claims that he can name the day of the week of any given date since January 1st, 1829, or for more than *forty-two years*, and that he can give the kind of weather of each day, with incidents occurring in his own experience, as where he was, what he did, whom he met, etc. These and other claims were recently subjected to a public test at the Opera House in this city by a committee, assisted by an intelligent audience, largely composed of state officers, including the judges of the Supreme Court, and members of the General Assembly. The first series of tests was conducted by School Commissioner Henkle. Some forty dates were given, most of them being proposed by the audience, and in all cases Mr. McCartney gave correctly the day of the week and in an average time of *six seconds*. The kinds of weather and the events given in connection with the dates were also correct, so far as they could be verified by those present. Mr. McCartney evidently remembers the experiences of more than *fifteen thousand days* as plainly as an ordinary person recalls the events of the past month. His powers in this direction are marvelous. He also performed mentally such numerical calculations as finding the square of 762, the cube of 99, the square root of 419904, the cube root of 48,228,544, and, in a private test, he raised 89 to the sixth power. These mental feats are due, not so much to his original and ingenious methods, as to his wonderful ability to carry in the mind an immense number of figures. Passages from the New Testament were read, and, with one or two exceptions, he gave promptly the book and chapter in which they are found, though dependent, as he says, on his having heard the Testament read from time to time by others. Mr. McCartney has been nearly blind from childhood. In 1862, he recovered his sight sufficiently to see the coarsest type by holding the book very near his eyes, and in that year he first learned to read. Those who are interested in this marvelous case of memory, will find a detailed account of Mr. Henkle's several tests in the January number of the *Journal of Speculative Philosophy*, published at St. Louis, Mo.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—— The Publishers' Board of Trade has so far modified its rules as to permit each publishing firm to put ten traveling agents into the field after the first of July. So the book-agent is to be again abroad in the land, but this time he is to be under regulations. The rule of the Board making one-half the retail price the uniform rate for introduction, is continued. This will prevent one serious abuse under the old system.

—— Supt. Mitchell, of Columbus, and Prof. Ogden, of Gambier, have purchased the fine seminary building and grounds at Worthington, Ohio, with a view to establish a Normal School of high character, and in full harmony with the other educational enterprises of the State. The building is to be thoroughly repaired and furnished, and no pains will be spared to make the school worthy of the profession. While we shall continue to advocate the establishment of State Normal Schools, a great need of our school system, we heartily welcome all worthy attempts of individual enterprise to meet the present urgent demand for normal training. The proprietors of the Worthington Normal School are competent to build up a first-class institution.

National Educational Association.—The annual meeting of this Association is to be held in the Polytechnic Building, St. Louis, Mo., on the 22d, 23d, and 24th days of August next. The General Association will be in session Tuesday morning and evening, and Wednesday and Thursday afternoons and evenings. The four Sections (Higher Education, Superintendents', Normal, and Elementary) will be in session Tuesday afternoon and Wednesday and Thursday forenoons. Among the exercises announced in the published programme, are the following:

General Association.—A discussion of the question, "How far may the State provide for the education of her children at public cost?"; an address on a "National Compulsory System of Education Impracticable and Un-American", by Hon. B. G. Northrop, Ct.; a paper on "Place and Uses of Text-books", by A. J. Rickoff, Ohio; a paper on "Pedagogical Bibliography", by Thomas Davidson, Mo.; a paper on "The Moral Uses of the Recitation", by Alfred Kirk, Ill.; and an address by Dr. Thomas Hill, Mass.

Normal Section.—Papers on "Model Schools", by Richard Edwards, Ill.; "A Graded System of Normal Schools", by Charles H. Verrill, Pa.; and "Principles and Methods in a Normal Course", by J. W. Armstrong, N. Y.

Elementary Section.—Papers on "Methods of Teaching Primary Reading", by E. E. White, O.; "Methods of Teaching Language", by Prof. D. H. Cruttenden, N. Y.; "Methods of Teaching Drawing", by Henry C. Harden, Mass.; "Methods of Teaching Geography", by Mary Howe Smith, N. Y.; "Philosophy of Methods", by John W. Armstrong, N. Y.; and a discussion on "What constitutes a Good Primary Teacher?"

Higher Education Section.—A report on "Academies and High Schools as Preparatory Schools for Colleges", by Prof. Llewellyn Pratt; a paper on "Superior Instruction in relation to Universal Instruction", by Hon. John Eaton, jr., National Commissioner; a paper on "Modern Mathematics in the College Course", by Prof. T. H. Safford; a report on the "Pronunciation of Latin and Greek"; and a discussion on "College Degrees."

The programme of the Superintendents' Section is not announced, but we learn that there will be papers and discussions on "School Statistics" (State and City), "Compulsory School Attendance", and the "Half-time System in Primary Schools."

All the hotels of St. Louis have generously reduced their rates for delegates, and free return or greatly reduced fare has been secured on many western railroads and steamboat lines. The attendance from the Central and Eastern States will depend much on reduced rates on at least two of the great "through lines", and it is hoped that there may be an early announcement of such an arrangement. Persons wishing further information, should send for a circular to Hon. J. L. Pickard, Chicago, Ill.; Hon. W. D. Henkle, Columbus, O.; E. A. Sheldon, Oswego, N. Y.; S. H. White, Peoria, Ill.; or Supt. W. T. Harris, St. Louis.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE NEW ENGLAND STATES.

MAINE.—State Supt. Johnson has issued an appeal to the educaters and school officers of the State, in which he urges several important improvements in the administration of the school system, including (1) greater care in the selection of teachers; (2) the examination of teachers before employment; (3) more thorough school inspection, the lack of such inspection being "the weak point in our American school work"; (4) the exclusion from the course of study of "much of the present rubbish of higher algebra, puzzling arithmetical conundrums, superfluous guessing at words, termed parsing, and the futile memorizing of geographical names"; (5) the employment of all rational means to increase school attendance; (6) the awakening of an interest among parents respecting school affairs and reforms; and (7) an active co-operation among local school officers, and between these and the county superintendents. Each of these suggestions is backed up by cogent reasons. Physiology is prescribed as one of the common school studies. When Mr. Johnson was appointed to his present office, school affairs in Maine were in a very unsatisfactory condition, but several needed reforms have been instituted, including county supervision, and a good degree of school activity has been awakened. We are glad to add that he has been reappointed. The schools still need all of his energy and pluck to bring them up to the average standard of success. The *Journal of Education*, edited by A. P. Stone, is doing good service. It is a live periodical.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The thirty-third annual report of the State Board of Education, containing 545 pages, is filled with information and suggestions respecting the condition and progress of education in the Old Bay State. There is scarcely a school measure or topic that is not touched upon in some part of the report, and it is plain that continued progress and better results are the order of the day. "To secure the best system of education", says the Board, "there must be trained teachers, constant supervision of the schools by competent persons, and a general interest in the subject of education throughout the community." It is recommended that the annual appropriation for the four State Normal Schools be increased from $40,000 to $50,000, and that a fifth normal school be organized in Worcester county. To meet the need of better school supervision, a system of county supervision is recommended. We learn from Mr. Phipp's excellent report as "State Agent", that high schools have been organized in 162 towns, the whole number of such schools being 175. They are successful and very useful. Training schools for teachers are maintained in Boston and six other cities, and it is urged that the colleges should give attention to normal instruction. The normal graduates continue to demonstrate the practical value of professional training. Secretary White's report gives a full summary of school statistics, with interesting facts respecting the success and needs of the nor-

mal schools. Six teachers' institutes were held last year, attended by 599 teachers, and it is recommended that an act be passed giving school committees power to require teachers to attend the state institutes, and that the time so spent shall not be deducted from the term of service. The report is chiefly devoted to school legislation. The law of 1869 abolishing the school district system (or sub-district system) is called a "wise and most beneficent act", removing what, for thirty years, has been regarded "an obstacle in the way of improvement"—"a stumbling-block and an offence." Mr. White calls school supervision "the spinal cord of the system" and urges that this duty should be placed in competent and trustworthy hands.—Boston has dedicated a new building for the Girls' High and Normal School. It cost a quarter of a million of dollars, and will accommodate not less than 1,225 pupils.

CONNECTICUT.—One obvious result of the school revival, inaugurated and pushed forward by Secretary Northrop, is a marked increase in the length of school terms. The public schools of the State are now in session, on an average, more than eight months each year. The truant and vagrant law of Connecticut is in advance of that of any other State. In Hartford most of the time of two officers is spent in keeping idle children in school, and they are doing a great amount of good. New Haven has organized two special schools for this class of pupils, and the truant officers co-operate actively with the school board and the teachers. The experiment promises to be a great success. Another law of the State makes the proprietors of any establishment liable to a fine of $100 if they employ any child under fourteen years of age, who has not attended school at least three months of the year, and it is made their duty to see that all their employees under twenty-one years of age know how to read and write and are familiar with the elements of arithmetic. This is certainly the right kind of compulsion.——The *School Journal* is one of the handsomest and best of our educational exchanges.

RHODE ISLAND.—The last General Assembly won a good name and much praise by the passage of an act re-establishing the State Normal School. The annual appropriation is $10,000, and students residing more than five miles distant from the school, are allowed not exceeding $10 a quarter to pay traveling expenses actually and necessarily incurred. The State Board has located the school at Providence, and a committee is to visit the normal schools in other States to examine their courses of study, general management, buildings and their arrangements, model or practice schools, and other matters essential to the organization of a first-class institution. Good for "Little Rhody."——The *Schoolmaster*, full of pluck and wisdom, is worthy of a broader domain.

MIDDLE ATLANTIC STATES.

NEW JERSEY.—This State has at last established a system of free schools, and the odious "rate-bill" system is among "the things that were" in all the Northern States, if not in all the States of the country. But if last to adopt the free-school system in its purity, New Jersey does not intend to be the least in its administration. The new school law levies a uniform state tax of two mills, which, with the annual appropriation of $100,000 continued, will yield $4.64 for every child of school age. If this is not sufficient to sustain free schools *nine months*, the townships are required to levy a local tax to supplement the state appropriation. This looks like business. New Jersey steps up toward the head. Where is Delaware?

PENNSYLVANIA.—The State Teachers' Association meets at Williamsport on the 8th of August, and there is a prospect of a large meeting.——A teachers' institute has been held the present school year in every county of the State.

PITTSBURGH.—While in attendance upon the Allegheny County Institute, we accepted an invitation of Supt. Luckey to accompany Deputy State Supt. Houck in a visit to several of the new school buildings of the city. The new high-school building is one of the finest public-school edifices in the country. It is built of stone, and will cost, when completed, about $175,000. The new ward buildings are commodious and admirably planned. Four such buildings were erected last year, and three more are now in process of erection. Truly Pittsburgh is providing liberal things for the education of her youth. We also gained much favorable information respecting the condition of the schools. They are making good progress. Supt. Luckey's report for April gave an enrollment of 9,086, and an average daily attendance of 7,621.

ALLEGHENY CITY.—We also took a look at the new school buildings in Allegheny City. They compare favorably with the best in Pittsburgh. The cost of one building, when completed, will be about $70,000. The board of control is now considering the establishment of a central high school, which is greatly needed.——One year ago corporal punishment was abolished, but, after a year's trial of the regulation, the board has repealed it, being satisfied that teachers should have at least the authority to use the rod.

NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

MICHIGAN.—The Legislature at its recent session enacted a law compelling parents and guardians to send children between the ages of eight and fourteen years to school at least twelve weeks in each year, of which at least six weeks shall be consecutive, except when such attendance is excused by the board of education for reasons specified in the law. Parents and guardians failing to comply with the law are liable to a fine of five to ten dollars for the first offense, and ten to twenty dollars for every subsequent offense. It is made the duty of the director or president to prosecute, and for neglect of such duty he is liable to a fine of twenty to fifty dollars. The law makes no provision for orphan children, or for the children of parents who are too poor to buy suitable clothing and books—the very children now growing up in ignorance, and whose education it is the bounden duty of the State to secure. Why should not the State do its duty as well as compel parents to do theirs? "First cast the beam out of thine own eye", etc. But Michigan has taken one step toward a compulsory system, and the practical operation of the law will be watched with lively interest.

OHIO.—The annual meetings of the Ohio Superintendents' Association, the Ohio Teachers' Association, and the Ohio College Association, will be respectively held at Sandusky City, July 4th, July 5th and 6th, and July 7th. A large gathering is expected.——Hon. W. D. Henkle, State Commissioner of Common Schools, declines to be a candidate for nomination on account of the insufficiency of the salary of the office ($2000). The salary is a disgrace to the State, but it should not be permitted to work injury to the school system. It is hoped that each political party will nominate an educator whom the office needs, and that the best man may be elected.

NORTHWESTERN OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—This Association met at Fremont, May 6th, with a fair attendance of teachers from the cities and towns in that section of the State. The first two hours were devoted to the presentation of classes from the public schools, in reading, numbers, analysis, logic, and map drawing, with elocutionary recitations, gymnastic exercises, and vocal music. The performances of the classes were highly commended by several speakers. One class in map drawing used parallels and meridians and the other construction lines, which elicited a dis-

cussion respecting the comparative merits of the two systems. The class in Schuyler's Logic showed thorough instruction. Supt. Ross has sent us the final examination paper of a member of the class. It covers six pages, and is highly creditable to both teacher and pupil. Col. De Wolf made an oral report on school reports, and the subject was referred to the State Association. The committee on compulsory education made a written report advocating the system, and, after a free discussion, a resolution, obscurely worded but doubtless intended to recommend the enactment of a compulsory law, was unanimously adopted. A committee was appointed to consider the holding of a normal teachers' institute, under the auspices of the Association, the first week in September next.

NORTHEASTERN OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.—The best meeting of this Association was held at Ravenna, May 14th. Cleveland, Akron, Steubenville, Canton, Massillon, Alliance, Kent, and other towns in that section of the State were well represented. Akron was represented by her live superintendent, five members of the board of education, and twenty-seven teachers. The exercises included a paper on "The Preservation of Vision" by Dr. Metz, of Massillon, and an address by Supt. Barnard, of Ravenna, on "The Remedy for the Defects of our Common Schools." The latter subject was discussed by Messrs. Harvey, Cline, Rickoff, and others, and, on motion of Mr. Forbes, it was recommended that addresses on the wants of the common school system be given in all institutes held this year. School Commissioner Henkle favored the Association with an account of his recent visits to the schools of several cities in the State, and he also spoke of the action and non-action of the last General Assembly on the school question. An excellent repast was served after the morning session by the ladies of Ravenna. The next meeting is to be held in Cleveland the second Saturday of October.

MCNEELY NORMAL SCHOOL.—There was a meeting of the trustees of the McNeely Normal School, at Hopedale, on the 12th of May. As there has been no election of trustees for several years, those last elected still constitute the board. There was a quorum present, the only ones from a distance being Mr. Hancock, from Cincinnati, and Pres. Tappan, from Gambier. Mr. McNeely announced that he was willing to release the condition of a $10,000 subscription, upon which he had formerly offered to convey the property to the trustees, and that he was ready to make a full conveyance at this time. His offer included the ten acres originally proposed on which the Normal School building was erected, and six acres adjoining on which the Pumphrey Hall was erected, together with the library, apparatus, and furniture in these houses Several cottages and a gymnasium have been built on the grounds. The whole property, real and personal, is estimated to be worth upwards of forty thousand dollars This is all conveyed to the trustees, free of incumbrance, and upon no other condition than that there shall always be maintained thereon a Normal School for the training and education of common-school teachers. The trustees are willing to convey the property to the State of Ohio, upon the same condition. Mr. McNeely has spent money on the property during most of the years since the school was begun doing the work of which the public has received the benefit. The State should now step forward, and relieve him and the trustees from this pecuniary burden. More hereafter.

CINCINNATI.—On our return from the South, we took a "peep" into the schools of the Queen City. We found Supt. Hancock engaged in his special annual examinations. They reveal a degree of success never before attained in the history of the schools. The influence of the system adopted by the examiners, is apparent in the improved discipline of the schools and in the increased professional spirit of the teachers. The Principals' Association is now engaged in revising the course of study. It is proposed to make language lessons and composition, which now re

ceive more attention in Cincinnati than in any other city of the country, still more prominent. The committee's report recommends that composition be made the chief end of object lessons. A brief visit to the City Normal School re-assured us that it is admirably doing its important work.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association will be held at Ravenswood, June 27–30, 1871. The lecturers from other States are Prof. Robert Kidd, Indiana, Prof. Fordyce A. Allen, Pennsylvania, and E. E. White, Ohio. Addresses will be delivered Hon. A. D. Williams, President of the Association, and other West Virginia educators ——Prof. S. R. Thompson has resigned the principalship of the Marshall College State Normal School, a position which he has filled with great success. His loss will be seriously felt.——An increase in the length of school terms is an evidence of the increasing popularity of free schools. Districts are providing for two school terms each year.

SOUTHERN STATES.

GEORGIA.—The State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting at Columbus, May 2d, 3d, and 4th, with an attendance of some seventy five of the leading educators of the State. Addresses were delivered by the President, Rev. Dr. Bonnell, of Macon; State Superintendent Hodgson, of Alabama; Rev. Dr. Landrum, of Savannah; Rev. Dr. Lipscomb, of Athens; and E. E. White, of Ohio. Papers were read on "Vocal Music in Public Schools", by Prof. W. Ludden, Savannah; on "Polytechnic Schools for the South", by W. A. Slaymaker, Atlanta; "The Difficulties in Teaching Algebra", by Rev. H. D. Moore, Talbottom; "Grammar: the Proper Age to begin Its Study", by Supt. G. M. Dews, Columbus; "The Place of the Classical Languages in Our Schools", by H. F. Train, Savannah, "The Best Method of Teaching the Ancient Languages", by J. S. F. Lancaster, Savannah; and "Latin Literature", by Prof. J. O. A. Clarke, Oxford. Prof. S. P. Sanford, Macon, presented the analytical method of teaching arithmetic, illustrating his views by a class exercise. Though the method has been used in the best American schools for more than twenty years, it was presented as new. The most interesting part of the exercises to us were the addresses on "Public Education" on Tuesday evening, and the report of Prof. G. J. Orr, Atlanta, on "The New School Law of Georgia." Although the Association is largely composed of educators representing the colleges and private schools of the State, we did not hear a sentence against public schools. The present school law embodies, in the main, the plan matured and adopted by the Associaton at a former meeting. Several amendments were recommended to the next Legislature. A visit to the public schools, and an admirable exhibition by the pupils on Thursday evening, were interesting features. The success of the meeting was largely due to Secretary Mallon, of Savannah—an able and progressive educator. We take pleasure in adding that our reception was very cordial. The next meeting is to be held in Augusta in May next.

TEXAS.—The Legislature has passed a free school act in accordance with the requirements of the state constitution, and Texas enters on the great work of public education. The law provides for at least four months of schooling for all youth of school age. Separate or mixed schools for the two races may be organized according to the preference of the districts.

——THE question of one or two daily school sessions was recently submitted to the patrons of the public schools of Louisville, Ky. The plan of one session from 9 to 3 o'clock carried the day by a majority of near 2000.

BOOK NOTICES.

A School History of England. Illustrated with Maps. By John J. Anderson Author of a Series of School Histories. New York: Clark & Maynard.

In this treatise we observe those excellences which characterize the author's previous historical works. There is a wise selection of events, and these are concisely but not baldly described—an art in which the author has a special and happy gift. So much of English history as is most important for American youth to learn, is attractively presented in three hundred pages. The text is illustrated by finely engraved maps, which connect history with geography, and it is accompanied by pronunciations of proper names, marginal dates showing the sequence of events, chronological and genealogical tables, biographical notes, and other useful aids in teaching the subject. We can not err in placing this work in the front rank of text-books on English history.

Oral Training Lessons in Natural Science and General Knowledge, embracing the subjects of Astronomy, Anatomy, Physiology, Chemistry, Mathematical Geography, Natural Philosophy, The Arts, History, Development of Words, etc. Intended for Teachers of Public Schools and also for Private Instruction. By H. Barnard, Principal Lincoln School, Minneapolis. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co. 1871. Price $1.00.

This work has the two-fold design of furnishing teachers with some knowledge of the more important natural sciences, and of presenting a method of teaching such knowledge. The information is arranged as the author would present it to a class, with his remarks to the pupils, questions with their answers, etc. The method is what is known as the elliptical, the pupils being required to supply ellipses in concert, and then to restate what has been learned. The words to be supplied by the pupils are printed in italics, and the important words to be written on the blackboard in the form of an outline analysis of the subject, are printed in small capitals. We have not yet learned how many copies of the book have been sold by the publishers, and so we forbear to express an opinion of its merits!

The Kindergarten: A Manual for Introduction of Froebel's System of Primary Education into Public Schools, and for the Use of Mothers and Private Teachers. By Dr. Adolf Douai. With Sixteen Plates. New York: E. Steiger. Price $1.00.

This work is intended to be an aid in introducing Kindergarten exercises into primary schools. The exercises are chiefly the movement plays of the Kindergarten, with words and music, and brief directions to teachers. It also contains a considerable number of child-like poems without music and child-like tales, printed in both German and English. The work can but be a great help, not only to Kindergartners, but to all primary teachers who wish to increase the happiness and interest of their pupils. The author was the founder of the first American Kindergarten in Boston (1859), and he is now employed by the School Board of New York to teach the Kindergarten system to the pupil-teachers of the Normal College.

Messrs. Hendricks & Chittenden, 204 North Fifth Street, St. Louis, have in press to be ready by July 1st: "*First Lessons in Physics*," by C. L. Holtze of the Cleveland High School. This is the first of a graded series of three books on Physics. The plan is inductive, and comprises forty lessons—one lesson a week for the scholastic year. The book is designed for the higher grades of Grammar Schools.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

VOL. 1. JULY, 1871. No. 10.

LANGUAGE LESSONS IN THE CINCINNATI SCHOOLS.

EDITOR EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY: In accordance with a promise made sometime since, I send you as full and accurate a sketch of what is doing in the schools of this city in the way of language culture as pressing labors will permit.

In arranging our present general course of study, one truth has been held prominently in mind—the powerful reflex influence correct expression has in promoting correct thinking; and as correct thinking is a chief object in all school instruction, it has very naturally followed that our school authorities should give a very large share of attention to language lessons and the best methods of teaching language. Of these methods I design to speak presently.

Until within a few years the study of grammar had no place in our schools below the Fifth Reader Grade, and composition received no systematic attention, and but little attention of any kind. The committee on course of study finally took it in hand to work an entire revolution in this important branch of school work. It was felt that technical grammar, as usually taught in our schools, was of little practical benefit to the pupil; that the greatest amount of word parsing, or even of the analysis of sentences, would never alone make correct and elegant speakers or writers; in other words, that the only way to acquire a skillful use of language is by long and persevering practice. On this idea was constructed a course in English grammar, to begin with

the child's first day in school and to follow him in every step of his educational progress until he reaches the High School, where it is expected that rhetoric and a critical study of some of the best English classics will finish the solid and symmetrical structure. It was a leading design of the framers of this course to avoid, as far as possible, all merely technical work in the District Schools; and, to this end, a syllabus was adopted, which, if faithfully carried out, would, it was believed, accomplish the object. In the further prosecution of their plan, it was resolved that no text-book on grammar should be used below the Intermediate or Sixth Reader Grades.

In the general directions which the committee prescribes for the teacher, prefixed to the syllabus, the design of the course is explained. The committee says:

"English grammar shall be taught in the District Schools without a text-book; the instruction shall not be given according to a strictly systematic and scientific course, but in a more natural and practical way, by numerous exercises in correct speaking and writing. The teacher shall not aim at a recitation of grammatical rules and definitions, but at a ready and correct use of the language itself—the latter alone having a real and practical value in the future career of the scholar."

But it is not upon our course in grammar alone, or even chiefly, that we rely as the basis for the cultivation of correct expression in our schools. Object lessons come in to play an important part. It is not only our object to cultivate, through these lessons, habits of close and methodical observation and to lay a sure foundation for future scientific study, but to evoke thought in general, and to teach the expression of that thought in the most appropriate forms.

It must be premised that the methods of teaching are not precisely the same in all our schools, these methods varying to suit the individuality of principals, and again of their assistant teachers. The divergence from a common standard is not so great, however, as to produce any considerable difference in final results, or to interfere with the pupil's progress on his removal from one school to another. These methods are further slightly modified especially in the lowest grade, by the difference of home advantages possessed by the pupils in the various districts. In some school districts almost everything the child learns must be taught him at school; whilst in others more favorably situated the primary teacher does but the smallest part of the work of education. In some of the first-named class of schools, the course of instruction for the first month after the child enters school is

a sort of Kindergarten one, the teaching being entirely conversational. The chief objects aimed at under such conditions are to accustom the young neophyte to the routine of school life, and to familiarize him with the correct forms of very simple sentences, so that he may be led to express, with some degree of readiness, the few thoughts he brings with him into school or gains from conversations with his teacher or from his object lessons. The difficulty of performing this apparently easy task is largely increased, if the school under consideration should happen to be a German-English one. In such a case it often happens that the pupils know very little English, and speak a barbarous German, and both languages are to be built up by the efforts of the teacher alone against the strongest counteracting tendencies. In the districts where home influences are favorable to success in school work, this preliminary oral drill is omitted.

In indicating our course of instruction, I will suppose the pupil to have been in school some three or four months, and to have learned to read from the blackboard, in both script and printed letter, little sentences composed of words containing not more than four or five letters, which sentences he is also able to copy on the slate. His course thenceforward will be nearly as follows: He will now begin to write very short sentences from dictation. Great care will be taken to see that the letters in the exercise are properly formed, and that the words are all correctly spelled. The pupils of this lowest grade are also expected to change the nouns contained in their sentences from singular to plural, and the contrary. It must not be forgotten, however, that the work in this grade is to be chiefly oral, and that the written work is to be confined mostly to dictation exercises.

The child now enters Grade E, and takes up the First Reader. He continues to form sentences about objects, which the teacher writes upon the blackboard, and which are copied upon the slate by the class. The pupil also writes more difficult and longer sentences from dictation, giving the same care to the forming of the letters in the exercise and to the spelling of the words as in the grade below. Towards the close of the school year he is able to go a step further, and write little compositions without further aid from his teacher than the oral working up of the subject matter in an object lesson. I give an example of such a lesson, worked out by one of our lady teachers, and copied from her blackboard. All the items were elicited from the children, and were afterwards worked up into a composition by them.

THE DUCK AND THE HEN.

I. How they are alike.

1st. Both are domestic birds.
2d. Both are nearly the same size.
3d. We use the eggs of both.
4th. We use the flesh of both.
5th. We use the feathers of both.

II. How they are different.

1st. The duck's bill is broad, flat, and rounded; that of the hen is narrow and pointed.
2d. The duck's neck is longer than the hen's.
3d. The duck has a flat, boat-shaped body. The hen's body is more rounded
4th. The duck's legs are shorter than the hen's.
5th. The duck's feathers are oily. The hen's feathers are dry.
6th. The duck swims. The hen does not swim.
7th. The duck dives in the water to seek food. The hen scratches the ground.

The pupils in this grade are taught to distinguish nouns, adjectives, and verbs in their reading and object lessons; to use correctly the articles *a* and *an*, and the demonstrative adjectives *this* and *that*, in the singular and plural, and the verb in the third person, singular and plural. They are also taught to begin all sentences with a capital letter, and to write the personal pronoun *I* as a capital.

In the D or Second Reader Grade the same general plan is continued; the teacher gradually withdrawing her aid, and throwing her pupils more and more upon their own resources. The compositions are worked out of the object lessons as in the grade below. After an object lesson has been given upon a selected topic, the pupils, without aid from their teacher, write out their compositions. In some of the schools, after the pupils have finished their work, the teacher prepares a model composition on the same topic, which she places upon the board as a standard by which the children are to correct their errors. In other instances these errors are corrected in the ordinary way.

In addition to the daily exercise required in composition, a rule of the Board prescribes that every pupil in this grade, as well as in those above, shall record neatly, uncorrected by others, and preserve for inspection at the annual examination, at least one composition for each month of the school year. As these compositions are always subject to the inspection of trustees and superintendents, it will readily be perceived that the parties named have always at hand an excellent means of judging the progress of pupils in this important branch.

I have before me, as I write, specimens of these compositions

ken from schools of that very opposite character as to the ass of pupils attending them, to which I have already alluded; it so faithfully have the teachers done their work in all, that it little difference is to be perceived between the various pro-ictions. I had designed to give your readers a specimen com-sition from each of the grades, which would convey a better ea of our work than any mere description of processes can pos-bly do; but neither my time nor your space would permit. or the same reasons, I must forbear going on with this descrip-on up through all the grades of our District Schools, as I should ke to do. Perhaps, however, it is not necessary to the under-anding of our course and methods that I should do more than have done in giving the course and methods pursued in the ree lower or foundation grades. It will readily occur to the oughtful teacher, how the work of each succeeding grade will turally, on our plan, grow out of that of the one below,—the pil at every upward step gaining additional acuteness of obser-ation, power of thought, and facility of expression.

It would be leaving the work of D grade incomplete, if I were o omit the grammar course. Pupils in this grade are taught to istinguish the degrees of comparison of adjectives, the use of he possessive case of nouns in the singular, the three cases of ersonal pronouns, and the interrogative pronoun *who;* also to se any verb in the two tenses (past and present), indicative ode. They are required, too, to construct affirmative, nega-ive, and interrogative sentences.

One other feature in this course of instruction deserves notice. ou are aware that almost all our schools are what we term Ger-an-English schools,—a very large part of the pupils being of erman parentage. It has been an object, kept constantly in ind by our best teachers in these schools, to make the instruc-ion in the one language aid that in the other. Hence, in one chool at least, it has been the custom for the English teacher to elect a composition of some pupil in the class, or to take her wn model and write it on the board, the pupils following her, nd turning the composition, sentence by sentence, into Ger-nan,—the German compositions to be corrected by the German eacher. Then a German composition is turned into English, nd corrected in the same way. In looking over the recorded compositions of this district, I find them running in couplets, one in English, the other in German, and on the same topic.

The advantages of this plan in giving accuracy and readine the use of both languages, can scarcely be overestimated.

In giving language lessons from objects, the teacher is al to bear in mind that these lessons are but one of the uses o object lesson, and that she is never to fall into that careless unmethodical way of giving instruction that has brought u served reproach upon the whole system of object teaching i

We believe that our course in language is a philosophic or, if we can not claim so much as that for it, that it is at not without a plan. In our lower grade of schools, particul we rely upon nature to furnish the basis of our work, We not to have the child heaping up dead forms of expression future use, believing this to be a method artificial, and cont to all correct principles for the development of intelle power.

The success of such a course as ours must depend enti upon the teacher; and, notwithstanding the Board of Educa has, as far as practicable, provided by rule against the eva or neglect of its purpose, it is necessarily compelled to largely on the judgment and faithfulness of the instructo employs. If the teacher possess knowledge, method, versati and enthusiasm, she can make that work, which is usuall dry and repulsive, intensely interesting, vitalizing the ch whole intellectual being. But if she be a mere routinist, t the course in her hands will prove little less technical, for and unpractical than the old and (we may be permitted to h absolescent methods of etymological grammar, with its ab and humdrum parsing exercises.

Fraternally, JOHN HANCOC

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOL

SECONDARY SERIES.—NO. II. ARITHMETIC.

BY WM. F. PHELPS, WINONA, MINN.

So much attention has been given to the study of arithm so many excellent text-books have been prepared upon the ject, and so well settled are the principles and methods of struction in this branch, that it seems almost superfluous

any thing should be said in this series of papers concerning it. The teacher who has failed to avail himself of the valuable hints contained in so many good works upon the shelves of every book store, will not be likely to be a reader of this journal, and hence, however useful the suggestions that may be presented here, they will profit him nothing.

Arithmetic is, perhaps, better taught than any other branch in the common-school course. It is an exact science. It is very important in the practical concerns of life; and perhaps, on the whole, there is a greater aptitude for its study than for either of the remaining branches taught in the schools, especially among the male pupils. It is, moreover, more easily taught than language or geography. But there is still great room for improvement. A majority of teachers fail to bring out of it all of the many advantages which grow out of its proper treatment. It is most valuable not only as a gymnastic to the reasoning faculties, but, quite as much so, as a means of securing exactness and precision in the expression of thought. By means of its judicious use great readiness and accuracy may be acquired in business and other calculations, and a practical turn may be given to the habits, which will manifest itself in connection with other studies.

The secondary course in arithmetic, it will be remembered, includes notation and numeration, operations on the four ground rules, and mental exercises. It may be well also to state that the course recommended here embraces instruction in decimals from the beginning. That is to say, the *numeration, notation, addition, etc., of decimals are to be taught in immediate connection with similar operations on integral numbers. Decimals should under no circumstances be taught as fractions.* First, because it is unnecessary; secondly, because it is far more simple, easy, and philosophical to teach them in connection with integers, since they are governed by precisely the same laws. We shall not stop to discuss this subject here, however profitable it might be; but we submit the question as the result of more than twenty-five years of actual experience in teaching this subject, fully satisfied that it is the only method by which a ready and practical knowledge of decimals can be obtained.

In this article we shall merely submit a programme of the topics to be taught, according to what seems to be the natural order of their evolution, reserving for one or two future papers the discussion of particular methods of procedure. It is to be

hoped that this tabular exhibit will be carefully studied by the young teacher, as it will be a valuable guide in his efforts to teach the subject in its natural order. This programme is, perhaps, rather more elaborate and exhaustive than it will be practicable to teach to children of the secondary grade. But it will be easy to omit such topics as are unsuited to the grade, and then take them in the review course of some of the advanced grades. The teacher should *study the subject exhaustively* as a necessary preparation for teaching it comparatively superficially.

SYLLABUS OF SECONDARY COURSE IN ARITHMETIC.

I. Preliminary ideas.
- 1. Unit.
- 2. Number.
  - 1. Concrete.
  - 2. Abstract.
- 3. Quantity.
- 4. Arithmetic.

II. Notation and Numeration.
- 1. Roman.
  - 1. Characters used.
  - 2. Definition.
  - 3. Exercises in writing.
  - 4 " " reading.
  - 5. Laws of notation.
- 2. Arabic.
  - 1. Characters and terms.
  - 2 Definition.
  - 3. Exercises in writing.
  - 4. " " reading.
  - 5. Principles.
  - 6. Rules.

III. Gen'l Definitions.
- 1. Figure.
  - 1. Digit.
  - 2. Significant figure.
- 2. Cipher.

IV. Prolonged Drill in Writing and Reading Numbers.
1. Write periods composed of units, tens, a hundreds. Use decimal point.
2. Of first or units' period, also tenths and hu dredths.
3. Explain terms—whole number and decimal.
4. Thousands' period.
5. First two periods with thousandths, ten tho sandths, and hundred thousandths.
6. Millions' period.
7. First three periods with millionths, ten mi lionths, and hundred millionths.

V. Principles,—
1. The value of a figure depends upon its *position* in a *number*. Term simple and local value given and illustrated.
2. Law of notation.
3. Moving decimal point toward the *right* increases the value of a nu ber. Why?
4. Moving decimal point toward the *left* decreases the value of a numb Why?
5. Placing ciphers at the *left* of a whole number has no effect upon value. Why?
6. Placing ciphers at the *right* of a whole number increases its val Why?

7. Placing ciphers at the right of a decimal has no effect upon its *value*. Why?
8. Placing decimal ciphers at the left of a decimal decreases its value. Why?

VI. Rules.
- 1. For Notation.
- 2. For Numeration.
  - 1. For Whole Numbers.
  - 2. For Decimals.

VII. Addition of Whole Numbers and Decimals.
1. Sign.
2. Examples solved and analyzed.
3. Definitions.
   1. Addition.
   2. Addends.
   3. Sum
4. Principle—only like numbers can be added.
5. Rule.
6. Copious exercises both mental and written, including miscellaneous practical problems.

VIII. Subtraction of Whole Numbers and Decimals.
1. Sign.
2. Simple examples solved and explained.
3. Definitions.
   1. Subtraction.
   2. Minuend.
   3. Subtrahend.
   4. Remainder or difference.
4. Proof of work
5. Principle—only like numbers can be subtracted.
6. Rule.
7. Copious examples solved and analyzed.

IX. Miscellaneous practical problems combining Addition and Subtraction.

X. Multiplication
1. Sign.
2. The Multiplier, a Whole Number.
   1. Examples solved.
   2. Definitions.
      1. Multiplication.
      2. Multiplicand.
      3. Multiplier.
      4. Product.
   3. Principles.
   4. Rule.
   5. Miscellaneous practical problems.
3. The Multiplier, a Decimal.
   1. Principles.
   2. Examples solved, etc.
   3. Rule.
   4. Miscellaneous practical problems.

XI. Principles of Multiplication,—

1. The multiplier is always an abstract number.
2. If the multiplicand be concrete, the product must be of the same kind.
3. If the denomination of the multiplier be units, the product must be of the same denomination as the multiplicand.
4. If the multiplicand or multiplier be multiplied by any number, the product will be multiplied by the same number.
5. If the multiplicand or multiplier be divided by any number, the product will be divided by the same number.
6. If the denomination of the multiplier be less than units, the denomination of the product must be as many times less than that of the multiplicand as that of the multiplier is less than units.

RULE.—When the multiplier is a decimal, multiply as if the denomination of the multiplier were units; then make the product as many times less as the multiplier is less than units.

XII. Miscellaneous practical problems combining the preceding operations.

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Rule.—When the multiplier is a decimal, multiply as if the denomination of the multiplier were units; then make the product as many times less as the multiplier is less than units.

XII. Miscellaneous practical problems combining the preceding operations.

XIII. Division.
- 1. Signs; as, +, ½, 2)4.
- 2. Divisor, an Integer.
  - 1. Examples solved, etc.
  - 2. Definitions.
    - 1. Division.
    - 2. Dividend.
    - 3. Divisor.
    - 4. Quotient.
    - 5. Remainder.
  - 3. Proof.
  - 4. Principles.
  - 5. Rule.
  - 6. Miscellaneous practical problems.
- 3. Divisor, a Decimal.
  - 1. Principle.
  - 2. Examples solved, etc.
  - 3. Rule.
  - 4. Miscellaneous practical problems.

XIV. Principles of Division,—

1. If the divisor and dividend be abstract, the quotient will be abstract.
2. If the dividend be concrete, the divisor may be of the same kind, but the quotient will be abstract.
3. If the dividend be concrete and the divisor abstract, the quotient will be of the same kind as the dividend.
4. The remainder will always be of the same kind as the dividend.
5. If the denomination of the divisor be units, the quotient will be of the same denomination as the dividend.
6. If the dividend be divided, or the divisor be multipled by any number, the quotient will be divided by the same number.
7. If the dividend be multiplied or the divisor divided by any number, the quotient will be multiplied by the same number.
8. Multiplying or dividing both dividend and divisor by the same number, does not change the quotient.
9. If the denomination of the divisor be less than units, the denomination of the quotient must be as many times greater than the dividend as that of the divisor is less than units.

RULE.—When the divisor is a decimal, divide as if the denomination of the divisor were units; then make the quotient as many times greater as the divisor is less than units.

JOTTINGS.—III.

BY W. D. HENKLE, COLUMBUS, O.

24. *Cider.* What is it? Webster (1864) says that it is "a drink made from the juice of apples", and that "it is now appropriated to the juice of apples, before and after fermentation." Worcester defines it as "a fermented liquor made from the juice of apples." Dr. Johnson, more than one hundred years ago, said, under the third definition of this word, "The juice of apples expressed and fermented. This is now the sense." It seems, then, that the juice of apples before fermentation is not cider according to either Johnson or Worcester. The question is an

important one in relation to the pledge of the secret Temperance organizations. Modern usage certainly shows the accuracy of Webster's definition. Bailey's Dictionary, published before Johnson's, gives the brief definition, "A drink made of apples," It should not be forgotten that according to Johnson and Worcester *cider* was originally applied to all kinds of strong liquors except wine. A good illustration is found in the first chapter of Luke, as translated by Wiclif: "For he schal be gret before the Lord, and he schal not drinke wyn ne *sydyr*, and he schal be fulfild with the Holy Gost yet of his modis wombe."

25. *Bryant's Celestial Indicator.* This new piece of astronomical apparatus, said to be highly recommended by Prof. Brocklesby, represents the axis of the sun as having a conical motion like the axis of the earth; or, in other words, the north pole of the heavens, as seen from the sun, sweeps round the north ecliptic pole in the same time that the north pole of the heavens, as seen from the earth, sweeps round the same ecliptic pole, the time of revolution being something more than 25,800 years. The sun's north pole of the heavens is much nearer the ecliptic pole than the earth's. Will the inventor, Mr. Bryant, or Prof Brocklesby, explain how this conical motion of the sun's axis was ascertained, and give the name of the astronomical work that discusses it?

26. *Lockyer's Astronomy.* There is a mistake in two illustrations in this interesting little work. My attention was called to the fact by Mr. T. C. Mendenhall, who asked the privilege of examining my copy, which is the English edition, to see whether the American edition, which he had, was a correct reprint. They were found to be alike. I make references to the English edition, not having nor ever having seen the American. In article 167, p. 68, there is a diagram representing the earth's path round the sun, as it appears to an eye looking down upon it from the north side of the ecliptic. The earth is represented as revolving round the sun in a direction contrary to the motion of the hands of a clock, and yet, in article 179, pp. 75–76, there are two diagrams representing the earth as seen from the sun at the vernal equinox (noon at London), and at the autumnal equinox (noon at London), which represent the axis of the earth as inclining respectively to the left and right.

27. *Camelopard.* Lockyer commits the school-boy blunder of spelling this word "cameleopard" and "*cameleopardalis*", as if he thought the giraffe was a *camel-leopard*, that is, a *camel-lion-*

pard and not simply a camel-pard. The word appears in Latin as *camelopardalis* or *camelopardalus*.

28. *Truths.* Both Worcester and Webster agree in pronouncing this word with the same sound of *th*, the aspirate, that *th* has in *truth*. Generally, however, the plural is pronounced with the subvocal *th* as heard in *the*.

29. *Youths.* We can not learn from Worcester's Dictionary his pronunciation of this word. Webster, however, pronounces the word with the aspirate *th*, and not with the subvocal *th*, as usually pronounced by teachers and others. Latham makes the *th* subvocal. (See his English Language, 2d ed., London, 1848, p. 226.)

30. *Th.* The following remarks are found on p. xlviii of Webster's Dictionary (1864):

"Nouns which, in the singular, end in *th* sharp, usually preserve the same sound in the plural; as, *Death, deaths; Sabbath, Sabbaths*, etc.; but in the plurals of the following seven words, the *th* is vocal; viz., *bath, cloth, lath, mouth, oath, path*, and *wreath*, as *baths, cloths, laths, paths*, etc. Some pronounce *truths*, in the plural, with the vocal sound (truths), but this is sanctioned by no orthoepist."

The pronunciation of the plurals of the seven words above alluded to, are not all given in the vocabulary. The plurals of *cloth*, *mouth*, and *oath* are omitted, and by an oversight the subvocal *th* in *baths* and *wreaths* is not so represented, although the *s* is marked to be pronounced as *z*. The proper marking of *th* is given in *laths* and *paths*. Are there only seven words of the class above mentioned? Worcester pronounces *moths* with *th* subvocal. The following remark in Prof. Bain's English Grammar, p. 79, is ambiguous: "The irregular pronunciation of the words—youths, cloths, paths, oaths, truths (opposed to the general principle seen in 'mouthz'), is explained on a similar historical circumstance; in Anglo-Saxon they ended in 'th' flat." Does he mean that *youths*, *cloths*, *paths*, *oaths*, and *truths* all have the aspirate *th*, or that *truths* alone has the aspirate *th*? As to his reference to the Anglo-Saxon language, it is proper to make the following explanations: In the alphabet of this language *th* aspirate and *th* subvocal (better represented by *dh*) are represented by two different simple characters. The attempt to explain the subvocal *th* (*dh*) in the plurals of certain nouns from the presence of the subvocal *th* (*dh*) in the Anglo-Saxon roots is hardly satisfactory. It is true that in the Anglo-Saxon words for *cloth*, *moth*, *mouth*, *oath*, *path*, and *wreath*, the *th* (*dh*) was sub-

vocal. This sound is preserved in their plurals, but not in the singular. The *th* in *death*, *breath*, *heath*, *health*, *birth*, *mirth*, *pith*, *fourth*, *youth*, and *truth* in Anglo-Saxon was also subvocal, while that in *bath* was aspirate.

31. *S.* There is said to be no sound of *s* in the language of the Georgia and Society Islands. Would it not be well for those grammarians that change *James's*, *Charles's*, *Chambers's*, etc., to *James'*, *Charles'*, *Chambers'*, etc., to emigrate thither. They would be allowed to remove the remaining *s*, and say *Jame'*, *Charle'*, *Chamber'*, etc.

32. *Chicken.* This word was formerly used as the plural of *chick*, as *oxen* still is used as the plural of *ox*. The use of the word as a singular was alluded to about two hundred years ago by Wallis. He said, "*Sunt qui dicunt in singulari 'chicken', et in plurali 'chickens'.*" There are those who say in the singular *chicken*, and the plural *chickens*. The old usage is said to continue in many parts of England, and that in Sussex they would as soon think of saying *oxens* as *chickens*.

33. *Haroun-al-Raschid.* The following is quoted from Webster's Dictionary (1864), p. 1662: "Haroun-al-Raschid (hä-roon'-ăl-răsh' id); *more correctly*, Harun- (*or* Haroun-) er-Rashid (hä'-roon'-ER-ää-sheed')." The reason for this latter pronunciation may not be readily seen. The explanation is seen in the following quotation from W. Burckhardt Barker's Turkish Grammar, p. 5, in which I substitute, instead of the Turkish letters, the name of the letters:

"When the Arabic article *ăl* occurs before a noun commencing with Tĕ, Thĕ, Dal, Zal, Rĕ, Zain, Sĭn, Shĭn, Ssäd, Ddäd, Päh, Zäh, Lam, and Nūn, the teshdid is placed over the first letter of the noun, and the *l* is not sounded; thus, dyhsrrlanurah [Harun-al- Rrashyd] is pronounced Haroon-ar-raschid."

The teshdīd is a mark placed over a letter to indicate that it is to be doubled, as in the case of *m* in *Mohammed*. It should also be remembered that the Turks, like most of the Oriental nations, read and write from right to left.

34. "*The star of empire.*" The epigraph to Bancroft's History of the United States has

> "Westward the *star* of empire takes its way,"

but Bishop Berkeley (1684–1753), in writing "On the Prospect of Planting Arts and Learning in America", said:

> "Westward the *course* of empire takes its way;
> The four first acts already past,
> A fifth shall close the drama with the day;
> Time's noblest offspring is the last."

MORE REASONS FOR CONCLUDING THAT EDUCATION IS A SCIENCE.

BY JOHN OGDEN, GAMBIER, O.

III. *Those drawn from the importance of the subject per se.*

They may be briefly stated thus:

I. Errors are more likely to occur in the application of this science to its legitimate uses than in most others, arising from its exceedingly complex character, and from the multiform and multifarious applications of the principles involved. Hence the greater necessity for logical arrangement, and clear and well-defined principles upon which to build a consistent practice.

2. The results proposed to be accomplished by this science are transcendently more important than those proposed by any other. Hence we infer that scientific classification and accuracy are correspondingly more necessary. For illustration, the science of chemistry proposes the examination of the properties of matter, with a view to the utilization of many of the discovered forces of nature. The same is true of natural philosophy, and, to a more limited extent, of geology, botany, etc. We do not maintain that these sciences have no ulterior and higher objects; but then these objects are, for the most part, educational, and hence add their force to the claim of "greater importance." Now education, as a science, proposes the examination of our bodily powers, intellectual faculties, and our moral and spiritual natures in a method not dissimilar to other scientific examinations, in connection with all other departments of knowledge, science, art, and spiritual influences, adapted to the several stages or degrees of physical, intellectual, moral, and spiritual awakening, growth, and perfection, with a view to making the most possible of the man in this life, and preparing him for the greater life, to which this is only introductory. The two objects thus stand contrasted; and we need not ask which has the higher claim upon our consideration.

3. The science of mathematics, aside from its utility as a means of intellectual culture, has for its object the measurement of quantity and its relations; and the means of arriving at exact conclusions and results in geometrical and numerical combinations. Education as a science and an art, in addition to all that has been stated or can be stated of the science of mathematics, takes yet a higher view of these principles and operations, and

grasps them with a firmer hold, and adjusts them in the scale of educational science, as the fit instruments for cultivating and refining the faculties of man. What we know, therefore, of the nature and educational force of these and other departments of science, aside from the facts themselves as such, constitutes a part, at least, of our stock in trade of education knowledge.

4. The science of language, or philology, has for one of its objects the investigation and classification of the facts and principles pertaining to the communication of ideas. Education, as a science and an art, takes these facts and principles, and others that may be connected with them, as they are thus grouped into departments and systems, carefully estimates their educational value and the positions they severally occupy in the scale of educational forces, and uses them as a skillful artist uses his pencil or brush in giving color, form, and life-likeness to his pictures.

In general, education is the grand master science that takes all others, all arts, all knowledges, human and divine, weighs them carefully with a view of ascertaining their true position and educational value in the grand scale of forces, thus affording a clearer insight into their nature and merits, arranges them into departments to suit corresponding departments in mind and body, and uses them as the instruments for awakening, drawing out, disciplining, developing, strengthening, refining, elevating, sublimating, and sanctifying man in all his lawful relations and possibilities. In this and other respects education is the *scientia scientiarum*, since it levies contributions upon all others, requiring their knowledge and use as means of accomplishing its object; and in this respect, too, it rises correspondingly high in the scale of excellence and importance as a mere science among sciences, since its aims are more exalted and far-reaching than those of others that merely cluster about it as so many dependencies.

Its claims to excellence as an art among the arts are correspondingly strong, and are so closely allied to those of the science itself that it seems almost unnecessary to discriminate between the two. There are, however, the following technical distinctions between science and art, which it will be well to keep in mind, and hence between the theory of education and the practice of teaching, viz:

Science is theoretical: art is practical.

Science is general: art is particular.

Science is subjective; art is objective.

Science is discursive: art is fixed.

Science is legislative: art is executive.

Science is generic: art is specific.

Science seeks after truth as an *end*. art seeks through science after truth as a *means* of *accomplishing* an end.

In all these contrasts we see evidences of the importance of our "particular science", but especially in the last. Its conditions answer exactly to what we observe in respect to education as a science; *i. e.*, the facts and principles or the known truths relating to human culture, sought after as an end in the science of education, become the means of accomplishing an end beyond the mere science itself, viz., the art of teaching or special didactics.

THE CONCLUSIONS, IF EDUCATION IS A SCIENCE.

The following are the logical deductions, we think, of the foregoing statements or assumptions concerning education; and we only ask for them that consideration which their importance demands.

If, indeed, as claimed in these statements, the whole range of duties pertaining to teaching centers in a system of knowledge, or a science, and if that science is placed within the reach of mortals, then surely no earthly consideration can transcend it in importance; since not only the higher sources of knowledge are traced to it, but the greatest success of the profession is involved in it; and the essential happiness and prosperity of the human race depend upon the right application of the principles involved in this science.

We ask, therefore, by no means in a boastful or even confident spirit, the candid consideration and, if need be, the fair and impartial criticism both of the premises and of these conclusions, with a hope, if errors are lurking anywhere about them, they may be pointed out and corrected. Is it, therefore, assuming too much to say,—

1. That education is a science, whose facts and principles are susceptible of a definite classification and arrangement into a graduated system of knowledge, embracing a series of lessons for the use of learners?

2. That these may be studied, learned, and recited in a manner similar to that pursued in the study of other and subordinate sciences, and in connection with professional training in model or experimental schools?

3. That the facts and principles thus eliminated, arranged, and

studied, become to the educator the true basis of all right methods of teaching and learning, however diverse may be the special applications of them?

4. That while it is neither possible nor desirable that any two teachers should teach or govern precisely alike, yet all true methods are based upon the theory, and are tracible directly or indirectly to the fixed laws of growth, and hence may be deduced from them by a course of study before beginning the actual work of teaching?

5. That *unity* in *diversity*, *i. e.*, unity of principle in diversity of practice, is the great central law of didactics; and, therefore, any fixed methods of teaching any given science, or of governing schools, to the exclusion of all others, argues pedantry, self-conceit, and narrow-mindedness, unpardonable in the profession?

6. That inasmuch as these right methods are based upon sound theoretical knowledge, which may be learned by study and explained before practicing them in the schools, there is neither wisdom nor safety in omitting this study, or in adopting methods at random, or outside these well-established facts and principles, or at variance with them?

7. That the claims of this science to our highest consideration are strong in proportion to the magnitude of the results contemplated in it; and that it is the duty of all teachers to acquaint themselves as thoroughly as possible with at least the fundamental principles of this science before attempting to practice it in the school-room or elsewhere?

THE LOCK-OUT AND LET-OUT SYSTEMS.

Mr. Editor: I see that your contributors have been discussing the "Lock-Out Remedy for Tardiness." Permit me to add a little *experience* to the arguments against the remedy; but first I wish to ask whether the five girls who were locked out, did not come to school the next morning one day behind their classes? They lost one day, and this loss is just in proportion to the value of the teacher. If their classes made much progress, these girls lost much. Nor does the evil stop here. Every member of their classes will lose one day, while they are making up the lost time. But the advocates of this system will answer, that this instance

will have a good effect not only upon the five girls, but upon the whole school, and that, in the end, the attendance will be much better than it would have been otherwise; that this will remind parents of their duties, and teach pupils the worth of their privileges. If as a rule this is true, then the system is valuable. What is the character of the parents for whose children this system was originated? Are they the intelligent citizens of your town who know full well the worth of education and understand the value of punctuality? By no means. If our patrons were all of this class, no such system would ever have been thought of by any teacher. Yet the system is based upon the fallacy that this is the only class of parents with which we have to deal.

About fifteen years ago or more, this "Lock-Out" system was in vogue in our town. When it commenced, or how long it lasted, I know not; but I do know that, for the last ten years, there has been no such practice in any school in the borough, yet to-day there are fifty boys running our streets in consequence of that rule. Every day during the school year, I meet boys that should be in school. When asked why they are out, the stereotyped reply is, "I had to go down town on an errand, and it got too late." Go to the parents and inquire what is meant by this relic of bygone years, and they are surprised to find that there is one person in all the world who does not know that all children are locked out, if they are not in their seats when the last bell ceases to ring. This is the class of families most affected by the "Lock-Out" system. They are glad to have a good excuse for keeping their children out of school one or two days in the week.

Another practice, at one time quite popular with us, was the "Let-Out" system. This followed the "Lock-Out" arrangement, and has also left its results. Some one heard of it somewhere in Yankee land, and explained to our directors its charms and wonder-workings. The directors consented to have it put into operation, on condition that it should operate to advantage. The rule was, that every pupil who was neither absent nor tardy during the week, should be permitted to go home at recess on Friday afternoon. As soon as the new rule was fully explained to the boys, its fame spread abroad through all the town. Boys came to school who never came before! They came just to obtain the great reward. Everything worked like a charm for the first week. Teachers were ready to exclaim, "Eureka! Eureka!!" When the time came to reward the faithful, the teachers

ound themselves with a few of the unfortunate boys, and with
othing to do except to wait for the time to dismiss. This little
nconvenience was, however, soon overcome. The boys who had
een unfortunate enough to have a black mark during the week,
aid to their parents that the most of the boys went home at
ecess, and those who were compelled to remain had nothing to
o, and so they were permitted to remain at home the whole
fternoon, while the good boys were compelled to attend until
ecess, in order to comply with the conditions of the system.
oys who had always been punctual soon learned that there was
uch a thing as being too much so; and the result was the break-
ng up of the schools on Friday afternoon, with more irregular-
y in general than there had ever been before. The roll of
very school in our borough, for the last six years, has shown
he evil effects of this rule in its Friday afternoon column. To
his day parents are told that there is nothing going on in school,
hile in fact it is one of the most important half-days of the
hole week.

With all these evil results to counteract, we were compelled to
dopt some plan as a check to irregular attendance. We first
hought of sending to Boston to get one already set-up. We did
rite to Mr. Philbrick, and he replied by strongly intimating
hat, if we had an average amount of common sense, we needed
o imported rules, and if we did not have this desired commodity,
e could not use them if we had them. We were not willing
hat the "Hub" should snub us in this style, so we went to work
nd *made* a rule. It is true we borrowed the idea from an um-
rella tinker,—and I believe he stole it from a bone picker;—
evertheless we do claim the application, if not the invention.
eachers are not enthusiastic over it. Its main feature is *work*.
ith it we have raised the yearly average per cent. of attendance
om seventy-five to eighty-six. This is equal to two hundred
upils in school every day, who formerly were out every day,
nd thus 40,000 days a year are added to our school attendance.
f the old Roman was sorry that he had spent one day in a whole
fe-time doing nothing, should we not rejoice that we have re-
laimed forty thousand days in a year?

I think that all these new and wonderful theories—these "*Live ideas for live teachers!*"—should have a trial, but nine-tenths of hem should not be experimented on by more than one school in State.

Pottsville, Pa. B. F. PATTERSON.

PRACTICAL HINTS.

BY E. O. VAILE, COLUMBUS, O.

1. That pupil back there has been holding up and shaking his hand for more than a minute, and that you have seen it, he knows very well. It is a little thing; but do you remember the important part little things play in great results? Look at that impatient and sour countenance. Think of the good will you are losing, and the example you are setting. You obey neither the Golden Rule nor the dictates of courtesy. Unless a pupil is consciously violating a well known rule, do not allow his appeals to wait for a response. The remedy for an unwarrantable interruption, if such it is, is not found in neglect, but in a better regulation.

2. "Now I want the room perfectly still. I shall punish the first scholar I see out of order." Such a remark, made when the disorder is no longer endurable, and in a tone that plainly indicates the vexation and extremity of the teacher, never produces a permanent result. Its meaning is too well understood. To speak in such a way has become a habit, and the habit goes no further. Good order is secured in spite of much speaking, never because of it. Let it be understood, without any accompanying threat, that quietness is expected as a matter of course, not as matter of constant effort. Then if punishment is deemed necessary, let it come upon the proper offender, without further warning. In this, as in all cases, "actions speak louder than words."

3. Another and a very common phrase of the same unfortunate habit is illustrated by questions like this: "Who is that whispering back there? Joseph, is that you?" If the teacher really expects to find out who it is, which is very rarely the case, she has not begun upon a very sensible plan. It seldom happens that Joseph *is the* boy; and it as seldom happens that he is honest enough to confess it, when he *is*. Then the teacher's vain search results only in her own discomfiture and the amusement of her pupils. It is better, by a legitimate use of the eyes, and by special, though possibly unobserved, attention in that direction to discover the cause of the annoyance. Then, at the proper time let the offender receive his just desert. Far more is gained for the teacher's authority, by enduring the disturbance just long enough to make the detection complete, than to stop it while the

author is still unknown. Especially is it so, when the school understands that the disvovery was not the result of accident, but of sagacity and determined effort. There is sound philosophy in that impertinent adage about "barking dogs"; and there are no philosophers so quick to discern it as children.

4. Watch carefully the beginnings of disorder. In governing a school, as elsewhere, "a stitch in time saves nine." One scholar a little out of order, will soon divert another, and he a third, and so on, as the little leaven in the parable.

5. In close connection with this last point, is the great need of a teacher's possessing a two-fold nature. To be perfectly absorbed in recitation, is one of the prime essentials to success. But it is no less essential to be "all eyes and ears" to outward conditions. This possession of duality is as rare as it is desirable. For want of it, one teacher seems to be on the alert for the first appearance of confusion, but is formal and uninteresting in class; while another from her intense interest in the lesson, seems to awake occasionally, as from a reverie, to find her room in an uproar. How to obtain a result that shall contain only the good qualities, is by no means an easy problem. Much, however, is done toward a solution of it, when the moral nerves of teacher and pupils are in healthy action. When they do not fail instantly to arouse the consciousness upon the first intimation of transgression. This condition of the moral sense of children and instructor depends greatly upon the habit of the school. After the first evidence of speed, a trotting horse is denied the luxury of a gallop in a fine pasture. The less he is allowed to experience any motions but those of a "square trot", the easier it is to keep him from "breaking" when on the track. So the more children are kept from the conditions and experiences of disorder, and the less they know of any but the right way, the easier it is to govern them. Beware of the moments of indulgence and bad order, whether allowed by an aching head, or a jolly mood. The fruits of many a week's good government have been spoiled by one day's laxity. Let not the delicate sensitiveness be dulled by disallowed sights or sounds. Do not let a lower standard of conduct be considered possible. Else, even tolerable order will become an object of constant struggle. It is easy to keep the polished steel bright; but let it begin to tarnish, and hard labor only will preserve its lustre.

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

FRIEND WHITE: Your elucidation of this subject in your Ma journal is nearly what I expected. The transcript of the scho record which I sent you was purposely selected, since, und the "Chicago Rule", all the pupils were members for the fu time; and hence, notwithstanding the absences, the total enrol ment and the "average number belonging" were the same. Th per cent. of attendance would, therefore, be the same, whethe obtained by the one method or the other.

I now have another record before me, which shows for th month of April an enrollment of sixteen boys, numbered fror 1 to 16. The number of school days in the month was 15, an the aggregate attendance 231 days. According to our method c computation, the average daily attendance is 15$\frac{1}{4}$, and the pe cent. of attendance 96$\frac{1}{4}$. But No. 3 was absent during the las five days, and hence, by the rule determining "average numbe belonging", forfeited his membership for this time. Others wer absent more or less, but not for such length of time, or for suc cause, as to lose their membership. Now, to determine th "average number belonging", if I rightly comprehend the rule we are to say that 15 of the 16 pupils enrolled were member during the entire time, or in the aggregate 225 days; while No 3, who lost his membership by being absent 5 days, was a mem ber but 10 days in the month. This with 225 days gives a tota of 235 days, which divided by 15, the number of school days gives 15$\frac{2}{3}$ for the "average number belonging." Comparing witl this the average attendance, 15$\frac{1}{4}$, we obtain 98 as the per cent under the "Chicago Rule."

Now the fault which I find with this "Chicago Rule" is, tha it erects an arbitrary standard of membership, under which one pupil may, by absence a certain number of days during a month forfeit his membership, while another may be absent the same o a greater number of days, and yet be regarded as a member o the school for the entire month; and in determining the "aver age number belonging", the absence of the one is regarded while that of the other is wholly ignored.

Truly yours,

Wheeling, May 18, 1871. F. S. WILLIAMS.

Editorial Department.

— We are sure that our readers will be well pleased with the contributed articles in this number. Supt. Hancock's paper on the course of language instruction in the Cincinnati schools is one of great practical value, and we regret that a want of time and space forbade his sketching the instruction in the upper grades. We hope that this may be done in another paper. Mr. Phelps will have the thanks of all progressive teachers of elementary arithmetic, who have the opportunity of studying his "syllabus." Mr. Henkle concludes his "Jottings" for the present, as official duties will keep him "on the wing" for a few weeks. What he does not know, belongs to the "unknown." Mr. Ogden closes his able discussion of the claims of education to an honored place among the sciences, drawing several important practical conclusions. Supt. Patterson's "little experience" will hardly be appreciated by Yankees who are but little slower in forgetting old customs than in devising new ones. In spite of its old-fogy smack, the article will be found wholesome reading. We desire to add that we do not know why Prof. Mason has not continued his papers on the teaching of vocal music. We have failed to get even an answer to our letters. Mr. Ormsby's concluding paper on case will appear in our September number.

— Our exchanges frequently complain of the copying of their articles by other journals without credit. We so often see our editorials doing service for some weak or careless brother, that we have almost ceased to be sensitive respecting it. Our exchanges for June present full a dozen cases of copying from our pages without credit. One of the state educational journals thus appropriates two of our recent editorials. But the greatest sinners in this direction are several editors of educational departments or columns in local papers. Two or three of these scissorers evidently do not know how to give credit for other people's ideas. But we are not always left without satisfaction. A fellow once stole some half a dozen articles from our journal for a single issue of his paper, but it was his last opportunity. *The paper suspended!* For that good result we resolved never to copy-right our pages! We only wish our editorials would kill when stolen singly. There would be several suspensions every month, at least as long as the thieves lasted.

— "A Teacher" believes that the phonic system of teaching reading makes poor spellers, and complains because he is obliged to use it. He states that in a recent examination a class of pupils, taught by the phonic method, were requested to write these sentences: "The wind is blowing and the rain is falling"; "We have a right and a left foot" They were written on the ma-

jority of the slates thus: "The wind is bloing and the ran is faling"; "We have a rit and a left feet." He asks, "Should the children be blamed for such spelling when the system by which they are taught, justifies it?" He thinks that the fault is neither the children's nor the teacher's, but that it is the natural result of a system whose sole object is to teach articulation. We submit the above inquiries to teachers who are using the phonic method. Is poor spelling a result of the method? We confess that we do not see how drills in the analysis of words as *sounds* should mislead the pupil in writing them as *forms*, unless the latter exercise be neglected. On the contrary, it would seem that the very difference between the spoken word and the written word ought to impress the spelling of the latter upon the pupil's mind. But let us hear from practical teachers.

—— The May number of the *Maine Journal of Education* gives some suggestive statistics respecting school attendance in Europe. It states that for every million inhabitants, the following is the school attendance in the countries named:

Italy.....	60,000, or 6 per cent.	Norway.....	130,000, or 13 per cent.
France.....	100,000, or 10 "	Sweden	130,000, or 13 "
England.....	110,000, or 11 "	Holland.....	140,000, or 14 "
Scotland	140,000, or 14 "	Germany.....	180,000, or 18 "
Denmark.....	130,000. or 13 "	Switzerland.....	180,000, or 18 "

We are not informed whether the numbers in attendance include all who attend any part of the year, or whether a certain number of months of attendance each year is taken as the minimum. If the former be the basis, the school attendance even in Germany and Switzerland does not equal that in several of the Northern States. The number of pupils annually enrolled in the *public* schools of Ohio is not less than 22 per cent. of the entire population. We have not the population of the several States, as shown by the census of 1870, and hence can not give the per cents of school attendance. We think that the facts do not prove that the voluntary feature of the American school system is a failure.

—— A SUBSCRIBER (A. W. T.) gives us his experience in teaching English grammar the past winter. He put seven boys from eleven to thirteen years of age to the study of an elementary grammar, and, after a month's faithful teaching, they had made little progress and showed less interest. He had the class drop the grammar, and begin composition writing. Selecting a familiar subject, he gave some twenty words which were to be used in sentences relating to it. When the time came for reciting, the pupils wrote their compositions on the blackboard, and, then changing places, each corrected another's exercise. When the pupils had pointed out all discovered errors in spelling, the use of capitals, etc., the teacher went over each composition, and, by the aid of the class, corrected other errors. The exercise was sometimes varied by his dictating twenty words to be used in miscellaneous sentences. Sometime at each recitation was devoted to naming and pointing out the different parts of speech (one at a time), and the elements of grammar were thus taught. By the com-

ısition drills, the boys learned to write, to spell, to use capitals, and punctua-
ɔn marks, and also to use correct language. They were much interested.
'e will only add the earnest hope that all teachers who are following the
ıtupid custom" of trying to teach technical grammar to children, may profit
our subscriber's experience. We think his language drills could be easily im-
oved, but they are in the right direction. What a gain it would be if techni-
ıl grammar were pushed forward at least two years in our school courses, and
ıily composition substituted!

—— A RECENT number of the *Congregationalist* contains a paper by Presi-
ent Smith, of Dartmouth College, in advocacy of the "Ranking System"—
ıe system by which the relative class position of students is determined and
sed. He urges that the matter should be determined by the instructors and
ot by a class vote, and that the discrimination, at least for college honors,
hould not be carried farther than the division of the students into groups or
anks, to be designated first, second, etc. The plan should make it theoreti-
ally possible for every student to secure the highest rank, thus avoiding envious
ersonal rivalry. It is urged in behalf of such a wise system (1) that it is
'God's plan", there being innumerable "gradations just" in both animate
ınd inanimate nature; (2) that it is "an apt preparation for scenes of coming
ife"; (3) that it "increases the amount of study and elevates the standard of
ıcholarship"; and (4) that "its moral influence is, on the whole, good." Each
of these arguments is concisely and forcibly presented, and all are backed up
by the actual experience of Dartmouth College where both systems have had a
'air trial. For about thirty years the ranking system was discarded, so far as
ıny public distinctions, records, or prizes are concerned. Seven years ago the
ranking system, as above sketched, was adopted with the hearty concurrence of
ɔoth trustees and faculty, and it has since been used with good results. The
ıppointees are divided into four classes, and there has been no indication of
ın envious spirit. The students even of the highest class are "walking together
n most beautiful brotherhood." It strikes us that the method of ranking here
ndicated is greatly preferable to the individual system, and that it is worthy of
he attention not only of colleges, but also of high schools and academies.

—— DR. MCCOSH, President of Princeton College, is a strong and earnest
dvocate of free high schools. In a recent address at Hartford, Ct., he stated
ıat "Prussia surpasses all other countries, not in elementary instruction, but
ı the *extent* to which an education may be acquired by any scholar." In
'ery center of population or city, there are high schools where the classics and
iences can be pursued, and which carry the pupil as far as the freshman or
ıphomore classes of our American colleges. He urged that there ought to
› a high school in every community in this country, thus affording the trades-
an's son an opportunity to get a higher education, and thus be able to com-
ıte with the son of the wealthy, who may be his inferior in ability and in
ɔwer for good. He maintained that such a system of free higher education

would save much power now wasted and that it would be a great gain. Dr. McCosh evidently discards the view that every poor boy should be restricted to the merest rudiments of an education lest he be spoiled as a laborer. President McCosh stated, in the same address, that in the thorough inspection of schools—teachers and pupils—the Irish system excels all others. The school inspectors are the best scholars in the country, men both of education and experience. In every county there is an inspector, who receives a salary of about $5,000 a year, and who devotes his whole time to the duties of his office. He visits and thoroughly examines each school in the country as often as twice a year, and once every quarter if possible.

LOGIC VS. THE LOGIC OF EVENTS.

The *Cincinnati Gazette* has been trying its logic upon the American system of public schools. It charges, among other things, that the system "has mistaken the popular want, for the people do not use it" (Who does?); that it unfits youth for labor, "the great paramount and eternal (?) necessity of mankind"; that it consumes the greater part of the school levy "on those who do not need the charity of the State"; that it is based on "the false theory that school education will make intelligent and moral citizens"; that it denies "the great truth that moral training in the family and a training to some industrial habits and to some methods of labor is the vital necessity of the individual and of society"; that "it has assumed the communist principle which disqualifies the family and takes its office upon the state"; that "it has utterly ignored the condition and necessity of the poorer class"; and that its inevitable fate is to become a gigantic political agency. It arraigns the system on these several counts, and, assuming all the facts necessary for the purpose, condemns it without benefit of clergy. No one who is acquainted with the past assaults upon public schools, needs be told that these objections are simply a re-statement of the old arguments of the English Aristocracy and the Roman Catholic Church. If they are true, the public school system should, of course, be utterly rooted up and destroyed, and the sooner the better. But the consolation is, that not one of these fearful charges is true. They are individually and collectively false, and every intelligent American ought to know it. Even the *Gazette* has not enough confidence in its assumptions and logic to follow them to their legitimate conclusion. It stops half way, and tries hard to find a foundation for a system of pauper schools (the old exploded English idea again)—a system that will not spoil the children of labor by making them intelligent; and that will keep education as the exclusive privileges of the wealthy. These old notions of aristocracy and caste have been too often and too thoroughly riddled to waste much ammunition upon in these days when laboring men

"——— know their rights, and knowing dare maintain."

THE CLEVELAND SCHOOLS.

In 1867 we published a somewhat full account of the changes which had occurred in the organization, supervision, and instruction of these schools in the previous fifteen years. We now propose to notice some of the more important changes which have since occurred, and, in doing so, we shall make free use of the excellent report for the year 1869–70, just received.

The most obvious change is in the character of the school buildings. Prior to the erection of the Brownell building in 1865, the better class of school buildings in the city contained but seven school-rooms. Another large building similar to the Brownell, with fifteen school-rooms, was completed in 1867. Since then three other large buildings have been erected, and the Mayflower building has been enlarged to the same capacity as the new ones. These six massive buildings cost, with furniture and grounds, more than $175,000, and, though they seat more than 6000 pupils, they have not met the increasing demand for school accommodations. They are among the very finest school edifices in the country.

But the most important change in the schools is in their organization. When Mr. Rickoff became superintendent in the fall of 1867, there were ten grammar schools in the city, each in charge of a male principal, who had nominal supervision of the lower schools in his district, but whose time was chiefly devoted to the instruction of the two highest classes. The first change was to require four of the principals to devote one-half of their time to supervision. At the close of the year, the highest classes in three of the smaller grammar schools were transferred to neighboring schools, and their principals discharged. The next step was to require all the principals to spend one-half of their time in supervision. This plan did not work satisfactorily, owing to the location of the schools in several districts in different buildings and the responsibility of each principal for the standing of his own classes; and, at the close of the school year, the number of male principals was reduced to four, and their duties were made wholly supervisory. The immediate charge of the grammar schools and the instruction and discipline of all the classes below the high schools were thus committed to female teachers. At the close of the school year, 1869–70, the number of supervisory principals was reduced to three, the number now employed.

This experiment has been watched with a good degree of interest by educators, and, being a radical innovation, it has elicited much discussion. Concerning its success, the President of the Board of Education, E. R. Perkins, Esq., says:

"One of the most gratifying of the results of the year, is the entire success of the experiment made of committing the care of the A Grammar Grades to ladies. So uniformly well prepared classes have never before been admitted to our High Schools, since their organization. This result is due mainly, without doubt, to the better classification of these grades by so far reducing the number of classes as to give each teacher but one class, thus allowing her to bestow all her time and labor to the work of that class."

Superintendent Rickoff says:

"If we may safely judge from the experience of more than a year, during which the results of the change have been watched with the deepest interest, alike by those

who advocated and those who opposed, and if we may rely upon the unanimous verdict of both parties, we must conclude that it is a success. That the schools are more efficiently governed than when there was a man at the head of every house, is proved by the better order of the schools, especially of the highest class, not only under the eye of the teacher, but also beyond her immediate observation and control, in the halls, on the play-ground, and about the neighborhood of the school premises. That this government, while it is more thorough and pervasive, is at the same time more in harmony with the spirit of the times, and the nature of the governed, is clearly shown in the great falling off in the number of serious cases of discipline that come up to the Superintendent on complaint of teachers and parents. That the higher classes are better instructed, as a common thing, is satisfactorily demonstrated by careful inspection and examination. It was expected that ladies, who had been accustomed to teach only the lower classes, would, in the first year of their trial in preparing boys and girls for the High Schools, fail to produce so good results as had previously been obtained by gentlemen who had many years experience in that kind of work, but, the fact was, we were enabled to advance the standard required for admission to the High Schools, and yet the percentage of failures was less than at any previous examination within my knowledge."

We think Mr. Rickoff is right in the admission that the experiment does not fairly test the efficiency of the two sexes as teachers, "for the reason that we have first-class women in the positions formerly held by men, the majority of whom would not be ranked as of the first class"; and for the further reason, assigned by President Perkins above, that each teacher of the upper grammar classes has now but *one* class to instruct, whereas the male principals formerly had *two* classes besides the general oversight of the lower schools. But the results of the experiment do show the superior advantages of the present classification, and eminently the efficiency and value of direct and constant supervision—the lack of which was the special weakness of the former organization. The very fact that the supervisory principal is constantly visiting the schools of his district, has a great influence in promoting good order and lessening the occasions for discipline. At any time he is liable to appear upon the school premises and in the rooms, and besides he is able to give immediate and personal attention to any serious disorders which may occur. Hence we give full credence to the Cleveland testimony. Superior female teachers, with fewer classes, and less responsibility, ought to produce superior results. Moreover, we do not doubt that a few first-class women are as competent to take charge of grammar schools or high schools as men, and, with the salaries paid, it may be true that, in a majority of cases, better principals may be obtained among women than among men. Some of the most successful grammar-school and high-school principals in the country are women. We regret that we have not space to pursue this subject farther.

Another important change proposed by Supt. Rickoff, is the bringing together of the higher classes of the present grammar schools and the establishing of a class of schools between the high schools and the lower schools, corresponding to the Intermediate Schools of Cincinnati, organized by Mr. Rickoff in 1854. This will divide the public schools into three distinct classes of schools, occupying separate buildings, to be termed Primary Schools, Grammar Schools, and High Schools. The bringing together of all the pupils of the A grades into four grammar schools has prepared the way for the change proposed, and many strong arguments are urged in its favor. The success of the plan in Cincinnati will, doubtless, secure its adoption..

A marked feature in the work of the past year is the organization of Ger-

an-English schools. Whenever from eighty to one-hundred pupils of any imary grade wish to study German and English conjointly, they are divided o two sections, and are placed under the instruction of an English teacher d a German teacher, who exchange sections each half day, the former giving truction in English and the latter in German. German-English schools of rty pupils are formed, when a teacher can be found "who can teach the o languages with accuracy and purity." German classes of forty pupils ch are formed in the grammar schools, and they receive one lesson in Ger- an of not less than forty minutes each day. Other provision for German in- ruction is also made. Though the introduction of the plan has been attended r serious difficulties, it is believed that the present year will put it into success- l operation. The propriety of providing German instruction in the public hools, is strongly urged.

The changes made in the instruction of the Cleveland schools in the past ree years, are as radical and important as those effected in their organization nd supervision. Early in 1868 a detailed course of study, largely based on he objective method, was adopted for the primary schools. The courses of tudy for the grammar schools and high schools were also thoroughly revised, he changes in the latter being quite material. We have not space to give any ntelligent account of these changes, and, moreover, we prefer to wait until we have the pleasure of visiting the schools, thereby gaining a better knowl- dge of the work done than can be obtained from any report. All the testi- mony before us agrees that the teachers, aided by the annual institutes, teach- ers' meetings, and supervision, have rapidly worked up to the demands of the new order of things, and that the schools are making good and, in many re- spects, marked progress.

We find in the report many suggestive and interesting facts which we would like to glean. We are glad that the enumeration and enrollment tables give respectively the number of youth in the city and the number attending school *for each year of age* between five and twenty-one. This is precisely what we urged the committee of Congress to provide for in the national census, re- cently taken, and, by request, we submitted blank forms for the tables. Such statistics would measurably solve the problem of school attendance, and correct the wild statements made respecting the number of youth "growing up in igno- rance." The Cleveland table shows that about **80** per cent., of the youth of the city between six and fourteen years of age attended the *public* schools last year, while only **13** per cent. of the youth between fourteen and twenty-one were enrolled. This shows that early withdrawals from school largely account for the difference between the aggregate enumeration and enrollment.

We notice that both of the high-school principals, Messrs. Williams and Higley, report the abandonment of the "daily marking system", and the adoption of stated examinations as tests of the pupils' progress and scholar- ship. The results of a year's trial indicate that the change was wise. The plan of marking the daily recitations and deportment of pupils had been in use many years. But we forbear.

SELF-REPORTING IN SCHOOLS.

On this, as on all "vexed questions," much may be said on both This, at least, will be generally allowed: that, for younger scholars, in the light of conscience is, as yet, weak and unsteady, and in whom, timidity, pride, or loss of approbation, there is a strong temptation to cc the truth or to prevaricate, self-reporting is not advisable. No oppor should, indeed, be neglected of encouraging every child to come freely teacher, and privately confess whatever fault he is conscious of. Bu responsibility of watching over the flock, and noticing every error, mus wholly with the teacher. He is the *eye* of the school.

It is only in the case of the older scholars, that the expediency of reporting can be made a debatable matter. But, whichever side we tak can not be too cautious and gentle in our strictures on those who take ferent view from our own. We recently heard one who has been sig successful in using this very system, say that, though he had employed it great benefit, yet he should not dare to recommend it indiscriminately. I be used with safety by that teacher only who has won the regard and dence of his pupils. They must be previously trained up to a high stan of moral principle and self-respect, ere so powerful an engine can be o good and not of evil.

If the teachers of our upper departments had to do only with scholars had reached their classes by regular gradation, and were therefore im with the healthy spirit of honor which an active superintendence will br into the whole school, there would be little difficulty. But we must be mind that these classes are apt to contain outsiders, with consciences in stage of development, trained on various systems monitorial or inquisit of severity or laxity, and, therefore, quite unprepared for so searchin ordeal.

We would therefore say: let self-reporting be, at first, neither absol rejected nor prematurely forced upon the scholars. But let the teacher's stant aim be to foster a spontaneous and candid avowal of error, whethe vately or publicly (the former rather than the latter), he meanwhile kee his own record founded on his own observation. Indeed, this record continue to be kept as a check on the other, until, by the power of his goodness and his magnetic hold on the love and reverence of his pupil has raised the class to a high tone of conscientiousness and strongly impr them with the duty which they owe to themselves, to their companions, a their teacher, of jealously guarding the moral standing and discipline o school, until every one has learned to keep a strict watch over himself, a ful record of his short-comings, and be ever ready, when he hears the ca step forward and tell the whole truth bravely.

One caution more, before we conclude. The teacher who adopts self-re ing, must be careful to draw a line between mere infractions of school re tions and those graver moral offenses which involve sinfulness and These are to be reserved for private dealing with the culprit. A publi posure would only serve to destroy his self-respect and sense of sham

harden his heart and make him reckless. Neither should the spontaneous acknowledgment of breaches of discipline involve any penalty more severe than friendly advice and remonstrance.

We would also suggest that a silent or negative report is preferable to a more direct testimony. So, instead of calling upon those who have communicated or have been, in any way, out of order, to rise or raise their hand, let rather those who have succeeded in keeping order, indicate it by the sign agreed on. Then, if expedient, after these have left the room, let the others be detained for a few words of caution, advice, and encouragement, uttered in the spirit of affectionate solicitude rather than of reproof and displeasure, which should be reserved for whoever has tried to throw a cloke of falsehood and hypocrisy over his faults.

EXPULSION FROM SCHOOL.

In discussing the subject of school discipline, several writers have proposed that expulsion from school be made a substitute for corporal punishment. Whenever a pupil refuses to obey the regulations of the school, or by lawless conduct subverts good order and wholesome discipline, it is urged that he should be summarily cut off from school privileges.

Unquestionably there are cases where it is better to expel a pupil than to attempt to bring him into subjection by bodily chastisement. A lawless rowdy who attends school for the purpose of making a disturbance, should ordinarily be "shown the door." Our schools have been too often disgraced by "pitched battles" between teachers and such characters. There are also in every community children so corrupted and spoiled by evil home influence, neglect, or injudicious management, that other children can not associate with them without contracting moral pollution. The mild discipline and moral influences of the school, thus contracted at home, sometimes prove wholly ineffectual, and all punishment fails to effect the desired reformation. In such cases expulsion may be the only means of protecting the other pupils and maintaining necessary discipline. And yet we shrink from the contemplation of what may be the future of these depraved children thus driven into that worst of all schools, ever open to receive them—the street, the saloon, the gamblers' den! Have those, who, in their capacity as teachers or school officers, are made the guardians and protectors of the rising generation, the right thus to doom a poor child, in reality, perhaps, more sinned against than sinning, to almost inevitable crime and destruction, until they have first exhausted all the means of rescue in their power? Clearly the expulsion of a pupil from a public school should be the last resort, and this ought usually to be followed by the commital of the expelled to a reformatory school where his moral recovery may be effected by proper influences and agencies. This should be the safe-guard of expulsion.

We know what formidable difficulties there are in the way, what an outcry is raised against the violation of the rights of parents, etc., but the annals of

criminal justice are full of warning examples of youthful delinquency and insubordination, which finally culminate in enormous crimes. The plain, practical duty is to rescue these children from the ruin in which they are doomed when driven from the public school—a duty more sacred than parental rights forfeited by neglect or subverted to the destruction of the dearest rights of childhood, to wit, control and instruction.

We wish to add that even the temporary and conditional suspension of pupils should be very cautiously exercised, since it is often followed by serious consequences. The suspension of small pupils is rarely necessary or justifiable.

HOW TO INTEREST PRIMARY CLASSES.

A "Primary Teacher" wishes to know how an abiding interest may be kept up in a primary school, and she appeals to us for information. It is very difficult to give general directions which will be applicable to the teacher whose qualifications are not known. Her want of success may be due to special weakness or mistakes, which a general statement can not touch. An answer to the question submitted may, however, be suggestive to some of our readers, and we venture to give it:

1. By cherishing an ardent love for your work and maintaining constantly a deep and lively interest in it. If your heart is not in your instruction, you can not expect the hearts of your pupils to be. The stream does not rise higher than the fountain, nor will the interest of your pupils in their studies exceed your own.

2. By making such daily preparation as will enable you to come before your classes not only full of the lesson, but with your knowledge of it fresh and ready. Your instruction must come directly from your own brain, hot and glowing. It will not do to set "cold victuals" before your little ones. Avoid a slavish use of the text-book. Stand before your classes with a free hand and a free eye.

3. By adapting your instruction and requirements to the capacity and wants of your pupils. This will involve a knowledge of the principles which underlie primary instruction, and of the methods which best embody these principles.

4. By so arranging and directing the work of your pupils that each may be kept busy without weariness. This will require a frequent change of activity and employment. The little child's power of attention is very limited. His mental powers as well as his muscles soon tire. He must, therefore, change from one kind of exercise to another, and *this change is rest.* The teacher must meet this necessity of the child's nature in her daily programme. Study and slate-exercises, brain-work and hand-work, thinking and doing, must alternate in quick succession. Keep the child's *fingers* interested and busy during each alternate twenty minutes of school hours. Thousands of primary schools are dull and stupid simply because the children have too little to *do.*

MISCELLANY.

— Our August number will contain a full report of the proceedings of the Sandusky meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association. Owing to the size of the number, it may not be issued before the 10th of the month.

— We have a few volumes of the Ohio Educational Monthly for 1870 and previous years, bound in muslin, which we will send by mail at $2 a copy; by express, at $1.75 a copy.

— The *Ohio State Journal* lately published a series of papers, entitled "School Complaints" in which the schools, their patrons, and the public have shared some good-tempered criticism and suggestion. The papers on uniformity, memorizing, and promotion in the high school are valuable discussions of these subjects.

— Gen. John Eaton, National Commissioner of Education, has been making a tour of school inspection through the Eastern and Southern States.——Prof. Robert Kidd has been elected to the chair of Elocution in Washington College, Pa. Very few men have given more attention to the subject than he.

— Prof. Geo. B. Loomis, Indianapolis, Ind., can be engaged to give instruction in institutes on the teaching of vocal music in public schools—a specialty in which he has few equals.——John Ogden, of the Ohio Central Normal School, Worthington, O., will make engagements to do institute work in July and August.

— President Eliot, of Harvard College, perseveres in his laudable efforts to establish a course of "University Lectures", notwithstanding the attendance upon the first course was discouragingly small. William Everett's lectures on Virgil were heard but by two persons, both ladies. Among the lecturers announced for next year are Hedge, Phelps, Lowell, Howells, Emerson, Agassiz, Fiske, and Everett.

— J. M. Preston, Wheelersburgh, O., sends us over thirty Words, recalled from West Africa dialects, in which the first syllable is repeated. He states that with good vocabularies, he could more than double the number. He also gives several examples of words in which two or more syllables are repeated, as *giligili*, *sangasanga*, etc. We do not print the lists of words, since they would be of interest to but very few of our readers.

— Prof. Huxley is in favor of the reading of the Bible in the English common schools. He would have it done without any theological comments, and judiciously as to selections to be read. The ground of his advocacy of the Bible is, that there must be a moral substratum to a child's education to make it valuable; and there is no other source from which this can be obtained at all comparable with the Bible.—*College Review.*

— President Pickard, of Chicago, informs us that the Pennsylvania Central will issue excursion tickets at reduced rates from New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and intermediate points, to delegates attending the National Educational Conventions, which meet in St. Louis, Aug. 22–24, but delegates must first procure a certificate from Sec'y W. E. Crosby, Davenport, Iowa, of their intention to attend. The Ohio and Mississippi Company agrees to return to New York for $5.80; to Philadelphia, Washington, and Baltimore for $5.10, provided *twenty* or more delegates have paid full fare in going from either city named. The same company agrees to return to Cincinnati for $3 and to Louisville for $3.25, on the same condition. A review circular will be issued early in July.

——The late Educational Convention at Huntsville, Ky., adopted unanimously an overture to the General Assembly, asking action to secure liberal support of the colleges, and to discourage the multiplication of such institutions; also to provide for the receipt of donations for a great university, the income to be used for existing colleges until the university is established.—*Ex.*

—— The Chicago Board of Education is taking hold of the question of woman's rights in a very practical manner by the proposition to decide the salaries of school teachers by position, and not by sex. At present male principals receive as high as $2,200 per annum, while no female principal is paid over $1,200. If the latter can take charge of a given school in all respects as well as a masculine, we can not see why she does not earn the same salary.—*Pub. School Journal.*.

—— The sophomore class of Vassar College were given, last fall, the work of surveying a new farm, recently purchased by the college authorities; and the teachers, on examining their surveys, found them to be accurate and correct. It was afterwards ascertained that, previous to the survey by the class, the college had employed a surveyor from Poughkeepsie to do the same work. On comparing his survey with that of the class, they found, much to their surprise and profit, that the class survey had saved them $500. The Poughkeepsie surveyor made out the farm to be five hundred dollars more valuable than it actually was. Of course, the class were highly gratified at the result.—*The College Courant.*

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

Michigan.—*Dear Sir:* In the June number of the National Teacher you say in reference to our compulsory attendance law: "The law makes no provision for orphan children, or for the children of parents who are too poor to buy suitable clothing or books." Our school law has always provided for furnishing books to the children of indigent parents; and when we had a rate-bill (now forever abolished), the poor were always excepted. It is doubtful whether a State can ever assume the clothing of children, as a practical measure, while they remain in the custody of their parents; and we shall find the cases very rare, in which parents can keep their families together, and yet can not clothe their children so as to attend school, at least half of the year—that is, in the summer. When parents get beyond that stage of poverty, their children naturally become a county charge, under the *poor law*; and our Legislature, at its late session, made provision for a State Primary School, to which all such children are to be sent, to be trained and educated at the sole expense of the State till they are able to provide for themselves, or till desirable permanent homes shall be found. This school will soon be in operation, when all the children now in the county poor-houses will be at once transferred to it. Are we far behind the foremost?

Respectfully,

Lansing, Mich., June 9, 1871. C. B. Stebbins, *Dep. Supt. of Public Instruction.*

—— The experiment of admitting women to the University of Ann Arbor, Michigan, has been tested in a manner satisfactory to the friends of this measure. At the recent commencements of the law and medical schools, both sexes were recognised in the distribution of degrees. Among the seventy-eight candidates for the degree of "Doctor of Medicine" was Miss Sanford, a lady from Aurora, New York, who ranked as one of the first among the graduates. Miss Killgore, an Indiana lady, who received her diploma as "Bachelor of Laws", has held an honorable place among the students of her class. It was a matter of great regret that the first lady

student of the University, to whom a part had been assigned, was prevented by sickness from appearing on the stage. There are this year 1,110 students on the catalogue. The number has not been lessened, nor the standard lowered, by the admission of women to the privileges of the University; and the thirty-four who have availed themselves of these privileges, have been uniformly treated with courtesy, and no opposition has been made to their progress.—*Mt. Auburn Index.*

OHIO.—The fifth meeting of the Central Ohio Teachers' Association was held in Columbus, Saturday, June 3, Mr. Wolf, of Lancaster, in the chair. The attendance was small, Prof. Williams and Superintendent Campbell, of Delaware, and Principals McCoy, Wolf, and Knabenshue, of Lancaster, being, we believe, the only teachers present, who do not reside in the city. Mr. D. P. Pratt, of the Columbus High School, read a very suggestive paper on school management; Prof. Williams ably and fairly presented the value of mathematics as an element of general education; and Mr. Knabenshue briefly discussed the subject of case in English, taking substantially the same position as Mr. Ormsby took in his June article. The discussion of Mr. Pratt's paper was chiefly devoted to incentives to be used in moral training and the promotion of pupils in high schools. The discussions were participated in by Messrs. Henkle, Mitchell, Mendenhall, Pratt, Vaile, Humphreys, and others. The next meeting of the Association is to be held in Delaware, and we hope there may be a large attendance.

—— W. W. Ross, the Democratic nominee for State Commissioner of Common Schools of Ohio, is superintendent of the public schools of Fremont, a position he has filled for several years past with great acceptance and success. He is a live, progressive educator, and, if elected, will make an efficient Commissioner.——Just as we go to press, the Republican convention nominates Thomas W. Harvey, superintendent of the Painesville schools, for the same position. We have only space to say that, if elected, he will bring to the office large experience and ability.

—— THE school board of Cincinnati has decided to dispense with male assistants in the District schools, and to transfer the pupils of the A grade to the Intermediate schools. The Columbus board is considering the plan of dispensing with a general superintendent and employing four supervisory principals, each to have the supervision of a section of the city, with female teachers in charge of the schools. QUERY.—If no men are to be permitted *to teach* in the public schools of Ohio, whence will come the supply of experienced male teachers for superintendents? Good by, gentlemen of the profession. Your occupation is going.

—— A NORMAL SCHOOL, to be known as the Northwestern Ohio Normal School, is to be established at Ada, O., in charge of Mr. H. S. Lehr. The citizens of the village have donated a beautiful site, containing three acres, and they are assisting generously in erecting the new building, which is to be three stories high, 58½ by 55 ft., with Mansard roof. We wish the enterprise large success.

ATLANTIC STATES.

NEW YORK.—The State Convention of School Commissioners and City Superintendents was held at Utica, May 10th and 11th. The subjects of teachers' institutes and normal schools were the prominent topics considered. Prof. Edward North, of Union College, delivered an able address on "Teachers and Teaching". He urged the importance of giving normal instruction in literary colleges. He also spoke strong words in favor of the employment of a competent corps of institute instructors.——New York has lately established two normal schools, one at Buffalo and one

at Genesee, making eight in that State.——A late number of the *Public School Journal* had an editorial on "Murder in Our Schools", in which it is asserted that many female teachers have died in the service of the city from over-work, and Supt. Kiddle's report for May shows that the teachers' sick list is rapidly increasing.——In the month of March forty-seven pupils were expelled from the public schools of New York city, principally from the male grammar schools.

——A few friends of education in Connecticut have presented Secretary B. G. Northrop a purse of $1,200, and the State Board of Education have bid him go and inspect the schools of Europe, without loss of salary. He sails with his daughter on the 15th of July. We wish some of our rich friends, who have more money than they can spend, would invest a little in a European tour, and let us enjoy it.

SOUTHERN STATES.

Tennessee.—A correspondent in Bradly county writes us that very few of the counties have levied any school tax this year, the county courts being generally opposed to taxation for school purposes. The court of Bradly county is one of the few exceptions, having levied a tax of two mills. The result is the organization of the county board of education, the appointment of a county school superintendent (Rev. R. D. Black, formerly of Ohio), and the organization of a county teachers' association. May the good work prosper.

Fisk University.—The Fisk University for colored students in Nashville, Tennessee, has now in attendance three hundred and fifty pupils of both sexes. Of these, sixteen are studying Greek, and forty are studying Latin; there is a fine Algebra class, and thirty-five are receiving instruction in instrumental music. A small freshman class will be ready to enter college in the coming autumn. There is also a large normal class, who, through the summer vacation, do the work of the district-school teacher of the North, opening schools and teaching successfully often where Northern teachers could not have access.—*The College Review.*

Georgia.—The late examination week in the public schools of Savannah was a practical demonstration of the fact that the system has the confidence of the people. The exercises were largely attended by all classes and the unanimous verdict was one of hearty approval. The citizens are proud of the fact that their public schools are taking rank among the best in the country. Supt. Baker is doing a good work.

BOOK NOTICES.

A Rhetorical Reader for Class Drill and Private Instruction in Elocution. By Prof. Robert Kidd, Instructor of Elocution in Princeton Theological Seminary. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This book embodies the ripe experience of the author in teaching elocution. The introduction of seventy pages contains a full and clear exposition of the principles of the art, with numerous examples for illustration and drill. A noticeable feature is the absence of nearly all rules for inflection, emphasis, gesture, etc., their observance being regarded not only impracticable but useless. What is needed is a mastery of the thought and emotion to be expressed. Considerable space is devoted to the elementary sounds, and though we are not prepared to indorse fully the classification adapted, the exercises for drill strike us as excellent. The selections which make up the body of the work, are fresh, brief, and varied, and many of them are of high

excellence. No one can fail to find "new pieces" as a majority of the
is are new. The book is handsomely printed on cream-tinted paper, and
rely and durably bound.

ALYTIC ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY AND HYGIENE. Human and Comparative.
olleges, Academies, and Families. By CALVIN CUTTER, M.D. With Numer-
ngravings. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 1871.

ago we used Dr. Cutter's former works, and, though they were defective, we
eir general plan, and the classes were interested in the study. We had the
ccss with the smaller work, the "First Book." The treatise before us is in
ean between the two works published in 1852, and it seems to us much bet-
ted to class instruction than either. It has less detail than the larger work;
lyses are more complete; due prominence is given to Comparative Anatomy;
illustrative cuts are greatly improved both in appositeness and artistic ex-
. Were we disposed to find fault with so excellent a treatise, we should not
the first chapter. The introduction of a Latin sentence into the text of an
ary school book smacks of pedantry, and, besides, it is an unnecessary an-
to the pupil. The language of this and several other chapters seems too
l and scientific. But whatever may be its minor faults, the work is one of
merit.

O MAP DRAWING. By GEORGE S. ORMSBY, M. A., Author of "Guide to
raphy." Published for the author by Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati, O.

RAWING SLATE AND RULER SCALE. Patented and manufactured by George S.
by, Xenia, O.

"Guide" is a full explanation of the manner of using the "Slate" and
"—two of the most ingenious and useful inventions which have been added
l apparatus in years past. The slate answers well all the purposes of an
y slate, and, at the same time, it is so constructed as to afford facilities for
, with mathematical accuracy, the parallels and meridians of all the maps
d in a full course of map drawing. The frame of the slate presents a com-
ale drawn in five sections, and it is accompanied by a radius ruler scale and
uide pieces for drawing meridian lines. It is impossible, in the space at our
l, to convey any clear idea of the manner in which these contrivances are
ad yet their use is very easy and simple. The invention must be seen and
l to be either understood or appreciated. We can only commend it to all who
obtain a practical guide to the drawing of maps by parallels and meridians.

RST BOOK OF BOTANY. By ELIZA A. YOUMANS. Revised Edition. New
: D. Appleton & Co.

capital little manual has been greatly improved by the omission of the long
n "The Educational Claims of Botany"—which was out of place in a text-
and the substitution of valuable chapters treating of the seed, germination,
he aspect of woody plants, etc. The essay is published in a neat pamphlet
tuitous distribution.

COLLEGE COURANT for June 17th contains a very important article by Prof.
D. Dana, LL.D., entitled "The New Haven University: What it is and What
ires." It is important from the fact that it has been submitted to most of the
Professors of Yale before publishing, and embodies very fully their ideas of
tual needs of Yale. *The Courant* also contains another important article:
d Grant White's "Final Reply to X" on "Words and their Uses." *The*
t is the first of College papers.

EVERY SATURDAY now comes to its readers with a new claim to favor. Every c is *trimmed*, neatly pasted so as not to disfigure the paper, and held together as secur as if stitched. Sheets of a larger size are used, so that they may be trimmed yet leave the page of *Every Saturday* quite as large as before. This arrangeme which is to be permanent, will be a very great convenience to all who read the div sified literary contents of *Every Saturday*, and all who examine its splendid weel gallery of portraits, landscapes, and pictures of character, incident, and travel.

—— PERSONS wishing to procure, at low prices, copies of "Irving and His Friend and "Shakespeare and His Friends"—two fine works of art—should read the c of Estill & Co., Mansfield, O., found in our advertising pages.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

SHAW'S CHOICE SPECIMENS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE. Sheldon & Co., New York.

THOMPSON & BOWLERS' HANDBOOK OF PENMANSHIP.
THOMPSON & BOWLERS' ECLECTIC COPY-BOOKS.
THOMPSON & BOWLERS' WRITING-CARDS.
—Wilson, Hinkle & Co., Cincinnati.

ORMSBY'S GUIDE TO MAP DRAWING, with Map-Drawing Slate and Scale. George Ormsby, Xenia, O.

LOOMIS'S FIRST STEPS IN MUSIC. No. 3. Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co., Ne York.

PAMPHLETS AND REPORTS.

Benson's Dissertation on the Principles and Science of Geometry. C. H. Phelp New York.

The Social Problem. A Discourse by Rev. A. A. E. Taylor.

Memory's Tribute to Thomas F. Stockton. By Rev. A. Clark.

Annual Report of the Public Schools of Maryland for 1869–70.

Sixth Annual Report of Maryland State Normal School. M. A. Newell, Prin

Second Annual Report of the Maryland Institution for the Deaf and Dumb f 1869–70. Charles W. Ely, Principal.

CATALOGUES.

Catalogue of Chickering's Classical and Scientific Institute, Cincinnati, O. J. Chickering, Principal.

Catalogue of Antioch College. Rev. G. W. Hosmer, D.D., President.

Catalogue of Ohio Female College. J. C. C. Holenshade, Proprietor.

Catalogue of Hiram College. B. A. Hinsdale, President.

POSITION WANTED.—A graduate of Harvard College, of fifteen years' experi in Graded and High Schools, desires a good position as Principal of a High Sc in the West. Address: C. E. WOOD, A.M.,
(Care of JOHN NOBLE, ESQ.) 32 PEMBERTON SQUARE, BOSTON, Mas

SITUATION WANTED.—Academic or High School Boards of Trustees wishing secure a Principal, can communicate with an experienced instructor, of Americ and European education, by addressing INSTRUCTOR,
(Care of THE NATIONAL TEACHER), COLUMBUS, O.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

VOL. 1. AUGUST, 1871. No. 11.

OHIO TEACHERS' ASSOCIATION.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE TWENTY-THIRD ANNUAL MEETING, HELD AT SANDUSKY CITY, JULY 5TH AND 6TH, 1871.

The Association was called to order at 9 o'clock, Wednesday morning, July 5th, by Hon. W. D. Henkle, chairman of the Executive Committee.

Prayer was offered by Rev. Daniel Worley, of Canton.

L. S. Thompson, of Sandusky, and E. A. Jones, of Massilon, were chosen assistant recording secretaries. A. B. Johnson, of Avondale, and E. O. Vaile, of Columbus, were chosen assistant corresponding secretaries. G. A. Carnahan, of Cincinnati, was chosen assistant treasurer.

On motion of T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus, M. C. Stevens, of Salem, R. W. Stevenson, of Norwalk, and A. Brown, of Columbus, were appointed a committee of communication between teachers and those wishing to employ teachers.

Mr. Mitchell, of Columbus, moved that friends of education, present from other States, be invited to take part in the deliberations of the Association. Carried.

President A. C. Deuel, of Urbana, delivered his Inaugural Address. The discussion on the Inaugural was participated in by John Hancock, of Cincinnati, Wm. Watkins, of Middletown, M. C. Stevens, of Salem, C. W. Heywood, of East Cleveland, Jno. Ogden, of Gambier, W. W. Ross, of Fremont, U. T. Curran,

of Cincinnati, J. B. Peaslee, of Cincinnati, E. E. White, of Columbus, and T. D. Crow, of Columbus.

On motion of E. O. Vaile, of Columbus, E. O. Vaile, J. C. Barney, of Warren, J. H. Loomis, of Napoleon, M. R. Andrews, of Steubenville, and N. M. McLaughlin, of McConnellsville, were appointed a committee on the nomination of officers for the ensuing year.

On motion of T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus, T. C. Mendenhall, Wm. Watkins, of Middletown, and M. C. Stevens, of Salem, were appointed a committee on place of next meeting.

On motion of W. H. Cole, of Wilmington, W. H. Cole, E. T. Tappan, of Gambier, G. W. Walker, of Lima, G. N. Carruthers, of Elyria, and John McBurney, of Cambridge, were appointed a committee on resolutions.

On motion of Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, Wm. Mitchell, E. E. White, of Columbus, and R. W. Stevenson, of Norwalk, were appointed a committee to report on the President's Inaugural Address.

President Tappan, of Kenyon College, offered a resolution on the promotion of pupils, and moved that it be referred to the committee on the President's Address, which was carried.

Adjourned till 2 o'clock P. M.

Afternoon Session.

President Deuel introduced U. T. Curran, of Cincinnati, who presented a report on "*The Wants of Ungraded Schools.*"

The discussion of the report was opened by Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia, and continued by Wm. Watkins, of Middletown, Samuel Patrick, of Solon, and W. D. Henkle, of Columbus.

President Tappan, of Kenyon College, offered the following, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be authorized to secure the preparation of an address to Township Boards of Education in the State of Ohio, suggesting such methods of improving the organization of the schools under their charge as can be effected under the present laws of the State.

T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus, presented a report on "*The Rapidity of Thought.*"

The report was discussed by W. D. Henkle, of Columbus, Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, E. T. Tappan, of Gambier, and M. C. Stevens, of Salem.

Wm. Mitchell, of Columbus, moved an expression of appreciation of the able report of Mr. Mendenhall by a vote of thanks,

ıd that he be requested to favor the Association with the results ' his future experiments, which was carried.

John Hancock, of Cincinnati, made a statement respecting the ansfer of the McNeely Normal School to the Association, and ade the following nominations for trustees of the institution:

For the term ending August, 1872—John W. Cassell, Isaac homas, Wm. Brinkerhoff, and Andrew J. Rickoff.

For the term ending August, 1873—Geo. K. Jenkins, James aggart, Ingram Clarke, and Wm. D. Henkle.

For the term ending August, 1874—Cyrus McNeely, Eli T. appan, and John Hancock.

The nominations were confirmed.

Adjourned till 8 o'clock P. M.

Evening Session.

President Deuel introduced Rev. A. D. Mayo, of Cincinnati, ho addressed the Association on "*The Reconstruction of the merican Common School.*"

On motion of E. E. White, of Columbus, a vote of thanks was ndered to Dr. Mayo for his able, eminently suggestive, and oquent address. Adjourned.

Thursday, July 6—Morning Session.

At 8 o'clock the Association was called to order by the Presi- nt. Prayer by Rev. T. D. Crow, of Columbus.

Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia, made a report on "*Compulsory Edu- tion.*"

The discussion of this report was opened by Warren Higley, Cleveland, who offered the following resolution:

Resolved, That this Association recommend to the Legislature of the State ch a revision of the School Laws as shall best secure a common school edu- tion to all the children of the State.

The resolution was laid over till the afternoon session.

The Association then listened to exercises by pupils of the ndusky Schools, including exercises in Elementary Geography, rimary Reading, Crayon Illustrations, Map Drawing, Concert ecitations, Language Lessons from the Primary Classes, Writing n Blackboard, Application of the Scale in Map Drawing, Lan- uage Lessons from the Secondary Classes, Select Recitation by liss Root of the High School, Select Reading by Miss March of

the High School, Drawing Leaves by Primary Classes, Drawing Flowers by Secondary Classes, and Concert and Select Reading by High School Classes.

Mr. J. E Janes, Secretary of the Iowa Teachers' Association, made his appearance on the floor, and was welcomed by the Association.

On motion of A. J. Rickoff, of Cleveland, the following resolution was adopted unanimously:

Resolved, That a vote of thanks be tendered to Sup't Cowdery, to the teachers, and to every pupil here present for the exhibition they have made of methods, processes, and results, which we consider of the highest value to the cause of education.

Superintendent M. F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, explained the methods and manner of instruction in Drawing employed in Sandusky Schools, and answered a variety of questions asked by Messrs. Hancock, Henkle, Crow, Furay, and Stevens.

Crayon Illustrations in Botany and Physiology were given by High School Classes under the direction of Miss Ainslee.

On motion of E. E. White, of Columbus, John Hancock, of Cincinnati, President Tappan, of Kenyon College, and Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia, were added to the committee on the President's Inaugural Address.

Adjourned till 2 o'clock P. M.

Afternoon Session.

At 2 o'clock the Association was called to order by the President, who introduced N. C. Stewart, of Cleveland, who made a report on "*Music in Public Schools.*"

The discussion of the report was opened by C. W. Heywood, of East Cleveland, and was continued by E. O. Vaile, of Columbus, and N. C. Stewart.

E. O. Vaile, of Columbus, from the committee on Nominations, made the following report:

President—Geo. S. Ormsby, of Xenia.

Vice Presidents—Miss E. M. Swingly, of Bucyrus; Miss Belle Westfall, of Dayton; Mr. W. H. Cole, of Wilmington; Mr. Warren Higley, of Cleveland; Mr. J. W. Dowd, of Chillicothe.

Recording Secretary—L. S. Thompson, of Sandusky.

Corresponding Secretary—U. T. Curran, of Cincinnati.

Treasurer—A. B. Johnson, of Avondale.

Executive Committee—For three years: G. A. Carnahan, of Cincinnati; T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus.

Auditor—E. A. Jones, of Massillon.

Finance Committee—Abram Brown, of Columbus; S. G. Barard, of Ravenna; A. S. Moore, of Defiance; W. H. Rayl, of Sandusky; W. S. Wood, of Findlay.

The report was adopted.

John Hancock, from the committee on the President's Inaugural Address, reported as follows:

Resolved, That we regard Objective Teaching as an essential element of a true method of instruction, and Object Lessons as a necessary part of a correct course of study.

The resolution was discussed by Messrs. Tappan, Hancock, Watkins, Ormsby, Henkle, and Rickoff, and then adopted.

President Tappan, of Kenyon College, from the same committee, reported as follows:

Resolved, That periodical examinations of pupils are useful and important as an incentive to study and as a means of showing both pupil and teacher the former's progress and relative standing; and the tabulated result of such examinations should be the chief but not the only basis of promotion to higher classes and grades, the pupil's previous deportment, efforts, and other circumstances being also duly considered.

The resolution was adopted.

R. W. Stevenson, of Norwalk, from the same committee, reported as follows:

Resolved, That we believe that an efficient truant law, with a system of juvenile reformatory schools, would be an important means of securing a more general education of the youth of the State and a consequent decrease of vice and crime, and we earnestly commend this subject to the consideration of our people.

After discussion by Messrs. Hancock, Watkins, White, and Supt Doty of Detroit, the resolution was adopted.

W. H. Cole, of Wilmington, from the committee on Resolutions, reported as follows, which was adopted:

1. *Resolved*, That the thanks of this Association are tendered to the officers of the following railroad corporations for reduction of fare, viz: The C. C. C. & I. R. R., B. & O. R. R., P. C. & St. L. R. R., C. H. & D. R. R., Mt. V. & D. R. R., P. Ft. W. & C. R. R., and C. S. & C. R. R.
2. To the proprietors of hotels for reduction of prices.
3. To the School Board of Sandusky for the use of the High School Building.
4. To the proprietors of the steamer "Evening Star" for the offer of the use of their boat for an excursion to Put-in-Bay.
5. To the Press of Sandusky, Cincinnati, and other cities.
6. To the Superintendents and Teachers of the Sandusky Schools for the interesting and instructive presentation of classes and methods of instruction.
7. To Rev. A. D. Mayo for his able and instructive address.
8. To the President and other officers of the Association for the able manner in which they have discharged their duties.

John W. Dowd, of Chillicothe, offered the following, which was adopted:

Resolved, That the Executive Committee be instructed to have an address delivered to the Association at the next annual meeting upon the topic: "Education of Youth a Duty of the State."

T. C. Mendenhall, of Columbus, from the committee on place of meeting, reported in favor of holding the next meeting of the Association at Put-in-Bay Island. Adopted.

W. D. Henkle, of Columbus, gave notice that at the next meeting of the Association, he would move to amend the constitution by organizing departments in the Association.

After singing the Doxology, the Association adjourned.

JOSEPH F. LUKENS, *Recording Secretary.*

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL.

The Annual Address delivered before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 5, 1871.

BY REV. A. D. MAYO, D. D., CINCINNATI, OHIO.

THE TEACHER AND THE PEOPLE.

I rejoice with you, teachers and friends of education in Ohio, that you have come up to this beautiful city, by the shore of the lake, to spend a week in professional congratulation, comparison of ideas, and communion of souls. The commonwealth you represent, though third in population of American States, yields to none in commanding influence in national affairs. Her great commanders, her accomplished statesmen, her varied industry, her refined and catholic society, her solid and conservative morality are known to all the world, and inspire her educators with a noble emulation in their high and holy vocation. A fair representation of the teachers of this State would form a convention of men and women burdened with such responsibilites and cheered by such hopes as environ no similar body on this continent.

Of all professional people, the teacher most imperiously needs the influence of such occasions as this, where the members of an honorable calling meet the whole people, and in their presence and under their criticism, discuss the grounds of their work and the details of their duty. I suppose it is because I, in a humble way, represent the people outside your professional circle, that I have been called to speak to you to-night. I shall respect your professional superiority by avoiding the discussion of those topics on which you must be the final authority. I shall assert the right of the whole people by asking you to come up with me to a high mountain of observation where we can overlook together the field of public education, and determine its relations to our entire

republican order of society. I therefore invite you to a consideration of the object and the end of our public system of American education, under the comprehensive title—

THE RECONSTRUCTION OF THE AMERICAN COMMON SCHOOL.

One of the most thoughtful and cultivated of our eminent statesmen a few days since remarked to me that the time is rapidly approaching when the advocates of the American common school will be compelled to go before the people and join issue in a final conflict with its enemies. It does not need a statesman to discover this fact. Any observing teacher or friend of the public schools in this State must have seen this ominous gathering together of all the foes of the people's schools during the years since the close of the great rebellion. Already are there signs of a formidable combination of all the elements hostile to our system of popular education. Already has the most influential journal of the dominant political party of the State succumbed to this influence, and, for the last six months, given itself over to a style of criticism of our public schools, which logically implies their destruction. In more than one religious body the fiat of the priesthood has gone forth that the American common school is to be destroyed. In the secret machinations of partisan politicians, this ark of our national covenant is coming to be regarded as a make-weight in new political combinations. In too many homes of wealth and of a culture and refinement inspired by European travel, the people's school is sneered at as a vulgar conspiracy of the social mob to invade the upper heaven of social respectability. The faithful teacher or trustee, who is absorbed in the exhausting details of his laborious work, does not realize that the very ground on which he stands is being undermined, and any day he may be awakened by the crash of the American school-house falling into the abyss.

This coming conflict does not indicate a popular degeneracy, but rather is the most healthy symptom of growth in the American people. Up to the breaking out of the war, the common school was not a national, but a Northern institution. Established on Plymouth Rock, it followed the stream of Northern emigration, and flourished best in the home of advanced Northern ideas. Even in some of our older Northern States it was so weakened by provincial, sectarian, and special complications that it hardly deserved its name. The Southern States of the Union never believed in, or in any real sense established, a school to educate the whole people, and the leaders of the great aristocracy that ruled the whole Union hated the common school with a wrath prophetic of its growing power. Now has come the period of a national reconstruction on the new and final basis of American society. Our people now are in the midst of this problem, as it concerns the industry and government of the Republic; and light all round the sky heralds that blessed day when the whole American people shall stand on the enduring foundations of free labor and a democratic government in a nationality inseparable and invincible. We are approaching the great debate on the form of education which shall be the safeguard of this nationality—won and sanctified by our whole past—such a two and a half centuries of toil, thought, prayer, and war as exalt our faith in the capacity of human nature. Every system of public education that has prevailed in the Old

World, every scheme for an educational millennium that inflames the soul of the reformer in the New, is to be ventilated during the next twenty years, and the friend of the American common school must know the reason of the hope that is in him if he expects to stand the fire of this great day.

THE CINCINNATI BIBLE CONTROVERSY.

The chief city of this State, Cincinnati, is the social key-point of the present Union. More equally balanced in its elements of population than any metropolitan city of America, placed on the border land of North and South, the oldest and best organized of all cities west of the Alleghanies, it is not singular that this great educational controversy has already come upon it. We come up to you black with the smoke of our first great battle, to gain a breathing space before the second day of conflict begins. What was called the "Bible Controversy" in the Cincinnati schools, two years ago, was simply the rehearsal of the mighty question of the relation of the American school to religion and morality. In Europe the church has fashioned every system of public education, and still, either through an appropriation of the school fund by one national church, or the division of such funds among a number of churches, holds the reins of the education of all classes of the people. It would be folly to suppose the priesthood of some church would not move heaven and earth to gain the same control over the American Common School. The great feature in our Cincinnati conflict, the one spectacle that loomed through the dust and smoke from first to last, was a solid phalanx of priests marching upon this central citadel of American liberty, determined, by distracting its defenders on incidental questions, to shatter the system itself, and build from its fragments the old European system of parochial schools supported by the State. That phalanx was not wholly composed of the priesthood of one religious body. Indeed, not a month ago a distinguished Ohio clergyman of one of the first Christian denominations in America, deplored the fact in public that his church had failed to capture the common school of Ohio, and must now strike for the education of its own children in sectarian schools. As in one of Mozart's overtures to a great drama, you can read out every step of the coming play; so that Cincinnati conflict was the preliminary skirmish of the field-day, when a portion—and no despicable portion—of the American priesthood will struggle for the control of the people's school.

THE SECULAR PARTY.

Side by side with that phenomenon appeared another, well known abroad, but now first lifting its head in our American life, the new party of sectarian secularism in education. I say sectarian secularism; for, in the ordinary meaning of that word, the American Common School has always been a secular institution of the same type as the American Government; an institution only pretending to aid men to perform the duties of citizenship in this world—never claiming to fit man for the life eternal. But in this reformed vocabulary secular education means the attempt to construct a system of public education on the basis of the materialistic side of modern science, ignoring the whole nature, history, and duty of man outside the domain of the intellectual

power as directed to scientific investigation and practical life. Many a friend of the American school does not yet see that this was an attempt of the same order of men that have hurled Paris into an abyss of fire and blood, to capture the education and government of America, and inaugurate a millennium of Atheism. That feature of our conflict is to reappear in every American State, and challenge the right of the American people to teach the children of the Republic that they live in a world made by God, ruled by eternal moralities, resting on a basis of eternal order. Whether the American people is to go down from this high plane of public life, and instruct the coming generations that this earth is only a wilderness of contentious monkeys, in varied phases of development, is to be seen.

ARISTOCRATIC EDUCATION.

And now, through ominous grumblings from a section of our most cultivated, refined and wealthy society, and a rain of contemptuous and subtle criticisms from a portion of the press, is coming upon us, in the same city, another question: Shall the people be taxed to educate the masses any farther than the most elementary forms of learning, sufficiently to give them the use of letters and the ability to keep soul and body together? This is the meaning of all the subtle and spiteful assaults on our public system of education from the champions of the "family", the friends of the "tax-payers", the defenders of the "first-circles." You, in the far North, don't know so well as we on the border-land, where all this comes from, and what it means. It is the old European notion that education is the monopoly of the social and literary aristocracy—an idea that has for centuries locked up the treasures of knowledge in palaces and great universities, and left the masses of mankind to grope in the outer darkness of beastly ignorance, superstition, and slavery. This idea, transplanted by the Southern American aristocracy (which was the "poor relation" of the great aristocracies of Europe), held in brutal ignorance the masses of the American people in half of the Union for three-quarters of a century, and finally drove that people into a horrid civil war against the Government that was their only friend. Now, this idea, through the representatives of that defunct order of affairs, is fighting the Common School with torch and fire, halter and legislation, through all our reconstructed States. And it has come up to us, to fill a portion of our wealthy and cultivated families of European proclivities with discontent at the taxation that educates the whole people into the rival of their class. Alone, this element may not be formidable, but in league with the sectarian religious party, casting its influence in every new complication of our politics against us, it is a danger that no wise man can afford to despise.

These are perhaps the most formidable questions now upon us; but they are mixed with others scarcely less perilous. They all confront this Convention, and every friend of American education may well make haste to revise his own ideas, and ascertain on what foundation he proposes to stand in his defense of the common school.

THE AMERICAN CHARACTER.

The object of the American Common School is the production of the

American character. The American Common School, as first attempted by the Puritans of New England, contained this germ of an original institution. As it has grown outside New England, especially as it is now developing itself into its final shape in the great West, it has more and more proved itself an original American institution, like all original agencies fashioned by the genius of our people; admirably adapted to the production of a national character. Every civilized nation of the Old World has, in its own way, established a system of education, designed to fashion and perpetuate a national type of manhood. In Great Britain this system has been constructed to educate and perpetuate the illustrious aristocracy which still greatly controls that mighty Empire. In the German States the national school is a consummate machine to turn out subjects of the German Empire, not too ignorant to be intelligent subjects, not too thoughtful to be dangerous questioners on the rights of man. The Catholic empires of Southern Europe are just breaking away from a national culture, elaborated in the interest of an infallible priesthood, designed to hold the people in blind subjection to an infallible Church. It is not questioned that in several respects these European systems surpass ours—the British in wide and thorough mental culture; the German, in elaborate methods of instruction and perfection of discipline; the Catholic, in the religious fervor and consecration of the teacher to his work. But the American Common School wisely does not propose to enter the lists as a rival in these directions, until it is established on its original foundations. It proposes to do what has never before been attempted in this world—educate every child in a great nation, at the public expense, into a style of character which shall qualify it to be a citizen of a republican State.

CHARACTER THE CENTRAL POINT.

Everything in our Common Schools bears directly on this point, and he who contemplates that most peculiar of our national institutions from any other point of view, sees it all awry. No people was ever yet so insane as to neglect to educate its governing class for the exalted office of government. With what anxious and careful handling have all the royal families of ancient and modern times been trained to their vocation. How wonderfully does that church which once governed Europe educate the priesthood, which still, in her theories, is the inspired ruler of this world. How splendidly does Great Britain school her aristocracy for the mighty task of administering an empire on which the sun never sets. So has the genius of the American people struck out the American Common School as the gymnasium in which may be fashioned the style of character appropriate to the citizen of a nation where every man is born a King. The royal family in America is the whole sovereign people, and in that family every child is heir to the highest honors and responsibilities of the State. To fit every child of the Republic for the momentous obligation of the American citizen is the foremost duty of the Government; and in accordance with the genius of our institutions, this is being done by a public system of free instruction, paid for by general taxation; fashioned, directed, and guarded by the highest wisdom of the whole people; and made so excellent that it irresistibly shall attract the vast ma-

jority, and compel private schools to share its spirit and follow its highest methods. This majestic work has already begun. The Common School of the North, before the war, had doubtless many incongruous elements, was complicated with some ideas and practices inconsistent with this end; but its spirit was sound. It raised up a people who in the hour of trial, destroyed the power that threatened the national life, held a half-hostile Europe in check, and made the National Government a Republic at last. It was the educational plank-road that carried the Northern people over to the firm uplands of a broad national character. Now that Common School is being taken in hand in every State, purified of its crude, extraneous, provincial characteristics, and in the light of foreign experience and national traits, fashioned into the perpetual training school of the American character, where the people shall learn in their youth the highest art now taught in this world—the art of preserving the free institutions that are making the United States the leader of all the peoples of the earth.

THE FAMILY NO SUBSTITUTE FOR THE COMMON SCHOOLS.

There is nothing in America that can take this place in our American life. To say that the family alone, or chiefly, can fashion this peculiar type of American character, in a country where the family life of the different States and sections, even of the different wards of cities, is as unlike as in the hostile nations of Europe, is an absurdity. Neither has the family any such original authority over childhood as is claimed by these extreme advocates of home education. Every child first belongs to God Almighty; then to humanity; then to his country. If the Government of the United States can come into a family and take out the father and every son, to imperil their lives for the national honor; can tax the family into poverty to save the national life; has it not the right to prescribe for an education of the people's children that shall fit them to become sovereign citizens of a democratic State? When the priests talk about the original rights of the family, they mean that the mother shall take the key-note of that family life from the pitch-pipe blow in the confessional. When the defunct aristocracy of a by-gone cause talk of the rights of the family, they mean that the parents through half the Union shall train up their offspring in undying hatred to the Republic. When the brigade of disappointed "first families" revolts against general education, they mean that they regard themselves as social squatters in a half barbarous country, waiting to die and go to Europe. The family is the primary school of human culture, and woe to him who loosens its holy bonds. But this world has seen enough of nations constructed to swell the renown and submit to the tyranny of a few great families, and the American people proposes to reach every family in the land by the influence of a common school, that will shape an overwhelming majority into a style of character that shall make it invincible against all the enemies of freedom, at home or abroad.

THE CHURCHES NO SUBSTITUTE.

Neither can the Church, sacred and profound as is her function, as now constituted, presume to do this work. The very freedom of religion in America

makes this land the paradise of contentious sectarianism. Every sect is the rival of its neighbor, compassing sea and land to make converts to its polity and creed. We believe this will be for the ultimate good of religion; but to commit the whole education of our children to the priesthood of these various sects is in no way to form the American character. However patriotic as citizens, it would be impossible for such a class to give other than a sectarian religious culture, in which the success of a favorite church overtopped all earthly interests.

THE PRESS AND LITERATURE.

Neither can the press and the literature of the day, whatever may be their pretensions, be trusted to fashion the American character in the young. The press in America reflects every tendency of modern times, and sways hither and thither at every vibration of the body politic. In the great rebellion, even the Northern press was the feeblest positive element in the field. It is no disparagement to say that it is not so much the leader, as the photographer of the popular mind. Who shall instruct the children what to read and how to read amid this wilderness of journals and new books and free libraries? The common school alone can form the mental tastes and habits which enable the people to use the American press in the most useful way.

SOCIAL RIVALRIES.

And if we leave the children of the Republic to the fierce conflict of rival nationalities, states, castes, orders of society, where is our hope? With the new organizations of labor that array the poor against the rich, with the clannish foreign influences that drive vast masses of our adopted citizens even to break the peace of the nation with foreign Powers; with our growing division of classes; with the slumbering fires of civil war below our feet, where is our hope for the American character in a coming generation, if not in the people's Common School?

We can well understand why large numbers, even whole classes of people in America, should desire to crush the Common School because it does propose to shape an American character that shall defend our national life against all its foes. But that any truly patriotic American should be so blind as to join the cry of these classes against the taxation that establishes the people's university, is to us incredible. To contend and higgle over the tax bill for the Common School, when the vote of one man may choose the Governor of Ohio, change the complexion of the Legislature, send a statesman or a demagogue into the Senate of the United States; when the thousand children in one of our city school-houses represent a future constituency as large as controls the political and social destiny of many a State of this Union—seems to us little less than insanity. That we are a sorely taxed people in America nobody will deny; that we should have "made money" by dodging the war that saved our nation's life, and straitened our pocket, some ward politician may yet affirm. That we shall make or save money or anything else worth having by withholding the supplies from the very citadel of national life—the people's school—may be a theme of speculation in literary

clubs and parlors, but it is not a question when brought out into the broad daylight of American affairs. Use wisely, administer economically; but give without stint and without complaint for the educatiou of the people into the American character, is alike the key of American finance, and the gospel of American liberty to-day.

THE SCHOLASTIC FALLACY.

Standing on this foundation we can meet and dispose of several theories which are now confusing the public mind in respect to the American Common School.

One of these theories, which has already bred mischief, and will even more embarrass our Boards of Education, is what may be called the scholastic idea of the function of the Common School; the notion that the American Common School must aim at a complete and systematic human culture. This notion is now in possession of some of our influential educators; our teachers who date from European university antecedents are especially exposed to it. A great and healthful change is now going on, especially in our Western cities respecting methods of teaching. We are rising out of the crude, empirical style of mental discipline which belongs to a new country, and adopting the best scientific methods of imparting knowledge and training the intellect of youth. Of course we are indebted to European pedagogues for many of these methods, and we can not too carefully study the systems elaborated by the patient thought and careful experimenting of these great masters of education. But the majority of the men who represent these systems to us are so wedded to abstract theories, so full of the superiority of foreign systems, so little in sympathy with the genius and wants of our people, that they insist upon dragging in the whole elaborate machinery of German school life, along with much that is really valuable in the new methods. What we need concerning these European systems is the exercise of sound educational common sense (the faculty most rarely found in the school-room) to get at the methods of discipline which are nearest to nature and most resemble the ways in which the Divine Mind instructs man in the school of life. Then use these methods, remembering that the six years which constitute the average school life of Western youth is a period of discipline for that type of intelligent and moral character which befits a citizen of this Republic.

The moment our school managers drift from this central fact of the American Common School, and get befogged with the conceit that they are managers of a universal gymnasium, in which the all-sided culture of man is the end, we shall fall into hopeless confusion.

The new methods of study have often been precipitated upon our city schools in a manner so hasty, urged with such a contempt of reigning methods and home intelligence, complicated with such radical and revolutionary mental and special theories, that the public is verging toward disgust. It is simply an outrage on our children to place them in the hands of a set of abstract philosophers obstinately bent on applying an iron system of education. In some of our schools the course of study appears to be constructed

on the principle of the Donnybrook Fair: "Where you see a head, hit it." If a child has a spare moment in his life, seize it.

It certainly is important that every soul should be developed into an ideal harmony of faculties; should be physically, morally, intellectually, æsthetically, practically an ideal man. But it seems never to have occurred to some of these mighty pedagogic geniuses that God Almighty has that operation in charge, and has established the university of man's eternal life; that, by an education slowly evolving through the ages of his immortality, al lthis may be approached.

Professional men of all sorts are beset with a weakness to get hold of the crank of the universe; and, perhaps, great educators are most tempted with this species of insanity. We may as well acknowledge, once for all, that the complete education of every child is in the hands of One who understands perfectly all the mysteries of the soul. and beholds the entire circle of truth. Man is educated, perhaps, as little in our schools as any where. The whole order of human life is providential, and every event is a step in that culture which is bound to make the pupil the image of God. All we can do is to follow the natural or divine ways in which God leads out the faculties and develops the character of our children; and in the school-room modestly and reverently march along that track; careful, lest in attempting impossibilities, we break down the body and wreck the mind of young America.

Happily the culture that will make a true American citizen is on the direct line of this highway of Providence. We mean nothing narrow or provincial when we speak of the American character; but that order of manhood and womanhood which shall combine the most intense love of our free institutions with a generous breadth of appreciation for all genuine forms of human society. Out of this wilderness of learned speculation on education we must slowly gather, and test by practical experience, only what can be profitably applied in a country like ours, on youth who, after six years of our manipulation, will graduate into the university of American life; a university as far surpassing Oxford and Heidelberg as an American forest overtops Hyde Park or Thier Garten.

We can so wisely employ these few years of childhood that our youth shall leave the Common School with correct habits of study; awake to the vastness of the field of knowledge; inspired with a lofty ideal of the American character; fit to use the matchless opportunities of our republican society. But woe to us if we permit learned theorists of home or foreign production to overload our school life with a notion of culture that can only perpetuate their own style of impracticable manhood. As sure as this is followed up, it will provoke a reaction into an empiricism more obstinate and crude than that from which we have partially emerged.

THE ECCLESIASTICAL FALLACY.

Equally mischevous and unpractical is what may be called the ecclesiastical idea of the American Common School—that it is an appendage of the Church, in which our children are to be trained for the eternal life, where the end is not American citizenship, but the salvation of the soul. Certainly religion is all in

nd no corner of human life is exempt from the sweep of its laws. But again, God Almighty has condescended to be our schoolmaster, and ıgh the family and the Church, especially through the Divine Providence, is ɛtually training us all for the glories of the eternal life. It is also true every people must have a religion as a foundation for its order of society; ur politics, our business, our homes, our social life. our literature, are the logical outgrowth of our real faith. If a people is hopelessly di- l in its religious faith, like the French people, there is no national life ble to it, save a vibration between the despotism of the Empire and the dia- n of the Commune. The priests are right where they say all education recognize the religious nature of man, and aid in the development of ivine manhood. They are also right in saying that the national schools reflect the national idea of religion, or they will become a hotbed of sm and anarchy.

t just here we meet this whole notion of ecclesiastical common school edu- n. The American Republic has left sectarian tl.eology and ecclesiastical r wholly to the churches, protecting them all in their equal right to enjoy each their own up to the point where they interfere with the rights secured ery American citizen. But the American people has a practical religion ıblic affairs, as real and well defined as the crest of the Rocky Mountains. practical religion, the logical outgrowth of eighteen centuries of Christian s founded on the natural inheritance by man from God, of the inalienable to govern himself in all his earthly affairs, subject only to the eternal law ve to God and man. Whatever of truth, purity, honesty, reverence for law—whatever of human obligation is included in the supreme love of -to that is the American citizen pledged by his birth. Whatever of regard rivate rights and public order is implied in love to man; to that is he l by his very nationality. The American people, first of all, has tried xperiment of founding a nation on a practical religion, which, itself the ce of Christianity, is also the flower of every form of faith that has blessed ind. This is the national religion; unwritten in creeds, but living in the ent faith of the majority of our people. This carried our fathers through vo centuries of almost perpetual war, and toil more destructive than war, ı established our republic. This religion lifted the majority of the people the conquest of the rebellion. As long as this practical religion of man's , under God, to govern himself, subject to the law of love of God and man, the majority of our people, Republican institutions will stand. As soon at leaks out, we shall fall into a period of anarchy, in which revolutionary pe will be re-enacted on a vaster scale before the eyes of a horror stricken l.

is practical religion we are to teach in the American Common School. school was founded, not to be a feeder to any church, but to raise up ican citizens to preserve the American republic; and its religion is the ical faith in human rights under God's divine government of love, which soul of our national life. This, the majority of the people has the right ıch in the common school, just as the majority has the right to preserve overnment and national order of society. It violates no man's religion,

unless that religion makes him an enemy to this country; and a rebel, or an enemy to Republican institutions, as such, on any ground, political, social, or religious, has no rights which the American people intend to respect. To say, as our Catholic priests say, that we oppress the conscience of their children, by teaching this form of practical religion and morality, by fashioning their offspring into believers of the rights of man, is simply to rail against the Government of the United States and the national idea of society; another form of rebellion against the Union. To say that the public money shall be divided and used to educate American citizens into the ecclesiastical bigotry that has drenched Europe in blood, and still makes a republic impossible abroad, is to say that the people shall be taxed for political suicide. Tammany Hall may find it convenient to humor this rebellion among the priests just now, as it flirted with the rebellion among the planters, till the people rose in a flame of wrath and consumed it in a night. Clever gentlemen at the bar and churchmen of high pretensions may contemplate this sale of the people's birthright on philosophical principles; but we tell this party that is bent on crucifying the American Common School and dividing its garments by lot, that in an hour when they know not the people will be upon them. The masses do not believe that a squad of men in black coats, engineered by a bar-room caucus, really ntends to make a demonstration against their children's schools, and these conspirators are so blind that they take courage, and every day become more pronounced in their claims. If they must be taught, by the logic of events, let the avalanche come, and we will give them a decent burial as fast as they are dug out from beneath the falling mountain of a people's awakened wrath.

THE SECULAR FALLACY.

The reaction from the Ecclesiastical idea of the Common School has thrown over a considerable body of our educators, into that most impracticable of all scientific vagaries—secularism. What is technically called secularism in education is simply the attempt to educate the child on the theory that he is only a thinking animal. It is the logical outgrowth of that atheistic and materialistic philosophy into which the highly artificial university education, superstition, and political tyranny of Europe has landed a great section of learned men abroad. The upshot of this philosophy is that man differs from other animals only by the secretion of a faculty called the intellectual power; that everything in man beyond this is a delusion, and everything outside of man that can not be measured by this foot-rule is non-existent. Human life, therefore, begins and ends in the effort of man to satisfy his animal instincts and be happy, and to keep this restless intellectual faculty in perpetual motion, exploring the all-surrounding mystery. Education, therefore, is, for the masses of men, the development of sufficient knowledge and faculty to achieve happiness and success in the animal and practical life, and for the learned, the consummate training of the intellect to that all-devouring skepticism which, beginning with the enormous presumption that this power is infallible, questions everything that will not bow to its present behest.

Out of this class of thinkers comes our so-called secular system of Common School education. We are called to educate the children of American people

at public expense, on the theory that they are thinking animals; holding them fast within the prison of a materialistic science and philosophy; ignoring all claims of the imagination or the affections, that are the pith and marrow of human character; keeping far outside the school-yard the exploded conceit that man is a living soul, child of the Almighty Father, heir to the eternal life, bound by the everlasting law of love. I say to this school of thinkers belongs the parentage of this theory of secular education. It has been adopted also by a few clergymen and professors, who suppose the intellectual power can be taken out of a child, like the brain from a manikin, and educated alone, and the practical training of Young America, like the hands of said manikin, be cut off from the central life, leaving the soul of the infant in their ghostly charge. It is also a favorite system among those politicians and men of the world, who have always found the soul an uneasy element in human affairs, and think the exchange and the caucus could be more easily managed if man would only consent to regard himself an intelligent animal.

Unfortunately for all these fine theorizers, little children have a provoking way of coming down on us with the whole nature God has given them—senses, mind, imagination, soul—and "mixing things" so vexatiously in every thing they do, that we can not hold them quiet long enough to lay them out on the dissecting board of this "scientific scheme of education."

You can not teach a child the least fact in creation without involving creation itself. You can not awaken the lowest animal instinct without running the gamut all the way up to God. To seriously suppose that you can dam off a little section of the immortal soul, that ebbs and flows through every school-room, and pilot your educational bark through that shallow water, is a conception worthy of the solemn pedantry that, in aping the prerogatives of the Deity, topples over into a protoplasm.

When you walk along the rocks by the sea-shore this summer, you will see now and then a little pool formed at high tide, the abode of a school of lively little aquatic philosophers, who wag their tails in placid conceit amid their tiny groves of tinted sea-moss; an exquisite little world, hemmed in by adamant, complete in itself, a charming finality, until some day Old Ocean lifts a mighty crest of tumbling billows, and comes down, drowning it out, and putting a league of shore and sand under water. So does this petty scheme of secular education fare, when confronted with the awakened souls and mighty needs of our American youth.

From the labyrinth of logic in which this secular idea of education is hidden, there is only one way out. The common school is established to fit American youth to become good American citizens. The essential of good citizenship is not culture, but character; and that peculiar phase of manhood and womanhood, which makes the American character, involves a moral and personal training, accompanying intellectual progress at every step. To talk of instructing American school children in mathematics, grammar, and geography, and leave out truth, purity, honesty, reverence for God's law, respect for government, general regard for man, is to talk nonsense. To neglect these qualities, that are the essence of character, is the same as teaching their opposites. A school of a thousand children must be persistently trained in all the essentials

of high character, or it will gravitate of itself to pandemonium. It may be said the family and the church shall be the only schools of morality. But we are dealing with facts, not theories. A school with a thousand scholars is a mighty fact that can not wait for any fine-spun theory, but must be met. Its principal must have order, and order must either be enforced by brute force, thus degrading the whole body, or by the skillful development of the sense of moral and religious responsibility in the children.

Any sincere man who begins to deal with the character of a child discovers at once that unless his anchor grapples with the everlasting foundations of religion and morality, the existence of God, the eternal obligations of duty, the spirituality of man, the divine right of society to preserve order and law, his fleet of children will be like a convoy of skiffs in a tempest. We are to teach that practical religion and morality which has become the unwritten faith of the American people, in the common school, and on that foundation build up the type of character which will perpetuate the American Republic.

THE BIBLE AND CHARACTER.

And just here is the unanswerable argument for the use of the Bible in the American Common School. *The Bible is the world's great text-book of character*—the grand manual of a lofty manhood and womanhood. It is a record of the words and lives of men who stood up as the sublime landmarks of lofty character to the ages in which they lived, and who still overtop all lesser lights of human nobility. The Bible is not a collection of philosophic or theological theories, but a book of biography and history and correspondence right out of the hearts and lives of men and nations, to which the whole civilized world yet goes for guidance in the most sacred affairs of life. It is so "rammed with life", so electric with the vital force of character, that every mind which touches it feels the shock as from a battery of spiritual forces. The opening of the Bible has been the signal for the elevation of every people in freedom, intelligence, morality. The British, German, and American people to day are what they have become, because, for three hundred years, in the Bible they have been instructed in the loftiest words of wisdom and grandest examples of character and life this world has seen. Leaving out all theories of inspiration, separating the Bible from the church, taking it (as it only can be taken in the common school) as a text-book for use or consultation in moral training, it is the world's text-book of character adopted by every nation as soon as its face is set towards a progressive and moral civilization, and never given up save by a collapse into semi-barbarism. We select the best book or the best oral method to teach every science; our whole school progress now consists in the adoption of the most vital methods of teaching the child. What hope have we in trying to train the American character in the millions of Young America, if we banish from the school-room the one text-book of morals, the sovereign guide to manhood and womanhood, the manual of civil and religious liberty, which by the common consent of Christendom is called "The Book." Do we cast the pupil on the unaided knowledge of the teacher in any other department? We place that teacher before his pupil with the best text-books as a fortress and base of mental supplies. So in the most difficult function of the school-room—the

velopment of character—we place the Bible on the teacher's desk, not to be olly taught any more than the dictionary or the physiology, not to be per-rted by theological propagandism, or used in the interest of any sect, but for nstant reference in teaching children to be true, strong, pure, humble, indus-ous, honest, charitable, lovers of God, and lovers of man. It will be a sad for the common school when the sectarian fury of the priests, or the secular bbling of the lawyers, persuades us to cast out from the American Common ool the only book on human life, that has been found wise and catholic and d enough to compel the admiration and worship of the whole world for nteen hundred years. In that period the two great languages of the ancient lized world have become dead languages; new literatures have arisen, .ling the famous literatures of Greece and Rome; the arts of painting, ic, architecture, have created a new wonder-world of beauty; physical nce has really been born; governments, religion, orders of society, have changed; but through this mighty transformation the Bible has remained very civilized land the glorious hand-book of man's nobility on earth and preparation for heaven. To banish it from our education, is to take a long down towards national barbarism, not to go onward in the way of national ress.

THE ARISTOCRATIC FALLACY.

his idea of the American Common School disposes of the theory now ven-ed in certain cultivated circles, that we are over-educating the masses of American people, and the public school should impart the mere rudiments nowledge. It is certainly refreshing to see a man who was born in a log n, went barefoot to the fields, and lived on hog and hominy in his youth, r being favored by Providence with wealth and social standing, as the re-l of his own aspirations, turn round and gravely talk of the danger of ng the masses too much knowledge, and the necessity of keeping them ent with a menial lot in life. It is even more refreshing to hear the sons daughters of such a man, whose whole claim to respect is the use of the ortunities provided for them, speak as if they had a mortgage on the chief es in society, and propose to keep the common people in a state of pious con-nent with their own perpetual superiority. The grand element in the Amer-character, that which makes our country a Republic, is, that no child is con-with the situation in which it is born. Aspiration to every kind of supe-ty is the main spring of our whole social order. The struggle for success inevitable as the changes of the seasons. There is no danger that the bler positions in life will be abandoned. There is always a vast majority ankind who must labor there, because of lack of natural capacity or force haracter to go up higher. America opens the door of the highest opper-ty, and leaves each man to find his own level. A weak man will find his place, however he may be aided; a strong man can find his place better r fit encouragement. If in this process the young traveling gentleman le the carriage, in a few years changes places with John who drives on the , we must submit to the transformation, and believe both men will be hap-and more successful in their final vocation for such a common-school edu-n as will fit them for the momentous duties of a good American citizen.

SCHOOL DISCIPLINE AND CHARACTER.

This idea gives us the key to the vexed subject of school discipline. The discipline of our children in the common school is not for the purpose of making them slaves or soldiers, but free American citizens. Many teachers sap the very foundations of American character in their pupils by a tyranny that holds them in a degrading bondage. Others imagine the perfection of order consists in the ability of a thousand children to adjust every movement to the tap of a bell. The discipline in the American school-room should aim at habits of self-control. We desire to teach our children to govern themselves; to pursue their own highest good, with religious regard to the highest good of others; and the whole management in the school-room should aim at the development of a wise and religious self-control that will support them amid the fluctuations of American life.

GERMANY IN AMERICA.

By the same idea we must finally test the claim of the foreign-born peoples among us to impose their own language on the public school. As a matter of temporary expediency, in developing the practical life of our new emigrants, we may consent for a time to spend the money of the American people to teach the French language in New Orleans, or the German in the cities of the West, as a common branch of education. But this can only be sustained as a temporary expedient; and the effort of a certain class of leaders of our German population to Germanize our western schools is sure to end in defeat, and if not wisely handled, to inflict great harm on the present generation of children of German-born parents. As a Frenchman, a German, an Irishman, no citizen of this Republic has any special claim on the people or the Government To propose that a foreign language, however excellent, shall be exalted to a rival of the national language in popular education, is a piece of pedantic conceit that only needs to be put forth to confute itself. It is not necessary that a child or a man should read or speak foreign languages to be a good citizen. George Washington and Abraham Lincoln got on moderately well without such accomplishments. The very object of our common schools is to make American citizens of French, Irish, German, Scandinavian, Chinese boys and girls. The children themselves will upset this absurd fancy of a Cosmopolitan Utopia that rises before the brain of these socialistic dreamers. Meanwhile, the people must see that the present generation of children is not sacrificed to any set of demagogues in the common school.

THE HIGHER EDUCATION.

The development of the American character demands also, that opportunities should be offered for the higher education at public expense. Our high schools, free universities, free libraries and art galleries are not an excrescence on our educational system. It is just as important to the welfare of the country that a poor child of genius should have the means of becoming a statesman, artist, or author, as that the child of ordinary gifts should be made an intelligent citizen. The charge that these schools tax the poor to educate the rich is absurdly unfounded. The vast majority of pupils who are found in the

higher schools are superior children of parents who otherwise could not give them a good education. They are there fitted for teachers and the various posts of skilled labor and professional service, or to enrich private life with their culture.

To abolish these schools and compel every child of poor parents to rely on private charity for a superior education, would be to back down upon the most offensive feature of European society—a process we shall not undertake, even to appease the discontent of any number of wealthy and educated men, who, in conspiring against our system of American schools, are aiming at a wholesale change in American society.

MAN AND WOMAN IN THE SCHOOL.

Perhaps, also, we shall reconsider our popular idea that instruction in the common school should be so exclusively in the hands of women, when we remember that character is formed in life by the united influence of woman and man. The earlier years of childhood are given by God to the charge of woman; for she can best tempt forth into character those faculties of affection, faith, imagination, and observation, which are the foundation alike of manhood and womanhood. But as the child goes on, it needs constant contact with the mind of man to awaken those reasoning, administrative, and practical qualities, without which society becomes a slush of sentimental incapacity. Woman herself is the divine force; she is so because always in contact with man, and she naturally finds her sphere by working at his side. To banish man from our school-rooms and substitute woman in the chief places of authority, is to go in the face of all human experience. A family brought up by a fond mother and a circle of affectionate maiden aunts, is not so apt to come out well as when a good father and mother unite to control the home. A school is best managed by a fair and harmonious coöperation of masculine and feminine ability, touching childhood at every point; and although woman may come to the exercise of suffrage in some future condition of American affairs, still in the present order of society the character of the American boy must be developed best by a proportioned discipline under the class that providentially holds the great responsibility of American business and government. Pay woman well for all she can well do in the school-room, but do not dispense with man.

THE COMMON SCHOOL THE CHILD'S REPUBLIC.

How the American child is developed into the true American style of character in the common school, is far more easy to be seen than to be described. The teacher can not over-estimate his office; the board of education can not be too wise; but, after all, the great thing is done when the children of all classes and types of nature are compelled to spend six years together under one roof. The very essence of American life is, that under our constitution and laws we are obliged to work all our life in perpetual contact with our fellow-men, respecting in them all rights we claim for ourselves. This involves us all in many exceedingly disagreeable phases of experience,—especially does it grate on the taste and sensibility of all orders of highly educated and superior men. It is a great trial for a Seward or a Sumner to reflect that the vote

of a scavenger counts as much as his own; that James Fisk, jr., has the same legal right to be President as Abraham Lincoln But this is just the "*right* place" into which America intends to put every superior man or woman—surround the best people by the worst, and compel them to go to work and regenerate the communities in which they live, in self-defense. The most shocking thing in English society to me, as I saw it, was, that so many wealthy, educated, respectable families could live unconcerned, almost unconscious, in a charming content, in a country where every tenth human being is a pauper, where the lower regions of society are a seething pandemonium of all that is most hideous and violent in this world. Thank Heaven, the best people of this country can not get off into a little social clique, and live in this dreadful oblivion to human want and woe.

The common school is chiefly valuable, not for the little knowledge it conveys—little enough, God knows, of the infinity of truth—but for its function as a rehearsal of American life. There the bright boy is compelled to endure the dull boy; the little idol of a wealthy home obliged to bear with the girl of her mother's servant; all orders and conditions of little ones daily held by a law that represents society and government to live together, see each other's good and evil, adjust themselves to each other's rights, learn to manage and conciliate and generally to get on amid this daily conflict; and thus to develop a character for practical sagacity, charity, catholic judgment, forbearance, tact, and firmness. All the temptations of the common-school room are the temptations of ordinary American life, to which every man or woman is exposed.

There is danger here for our little ones; but we have fought two hundred and fifty years to place ourselves in just that kind of peril in our whole order of society. It is too late to retreat now in one section, unless we would give up in all. Destroy the common school, and place one generation of our children in the sole care of the family, the parochial and private schools, and you have a generation of people that can not live together as citizens—a hot-bed of revolutions. Our only safety now is to establish the people's school in all its grades, on immutable foundations, in every State, county, township of the land; make it the best that can be made in the present circumstances of the people; watch it with that eternal vigilance which is the price of liberty; make it so good and powerful that it will compel every private or religious school to be its rival in excellence and national spirit. Then place our children there, just as we give our youth everywhere to life, doing our best to aid them in using its opportunities, and avoiding its temptations, praying all the time that we may be able to establish a Republic on the divine foundation of reverence for God and justice to mankind.

INAUGURAL ADDRESS.*

BY PRESIDENT A. C. DEUEL, URBANA, OHIO.

Fellow Teachers of the Association and Friends of Education: Thanking you for the honor conferred upon me, in calling me to preside over your deliberations, I ask your indulgence for any shortcomings, especially in this my first duty, as my remarks must be almost entirely extemporaneous—having been prevented from making that adequate preparation the occasion demands—having done but little more than to select the topics to be presented.

MODIFICATIONS OF LAW.

Under this head permit me to suggest, without giving detailed specifications of the reason for each, several changes in, or amendments to, our school laws. A Constitutional Convention being probable, having been indorsed by both political parties, would it not be worth while to consider whether a reorganization of our School Department, by having a State Board of Education, whose Secretary shall be Commissioner of Schools, would not add efficiency to the system? Or, if this be not deemed advisable, whether the office of Commissioner of Schools should not at least be made a Constitutional office, and thus place it beyond the reach of capricious legislation.

Second, I would suggest the feasibility and importance of making the Agricultural College the head of our common school system. This would of course require its expansion into a University, not only in name, but in fact. Let us imitate in this respect our neighbor, Michigan, who, by her liberality, has a University, young as it is, standing admittedly third, if not second, in our list of schools. The point to which I call attention is, that her University is the head and completion of her common school system, so that each child, from his entrance to school, can look forward to the obtainment of a thorough education. I need not argue to this Association how great a stimulus and incentive this is to the pupil—of what great advantage it is in all the lower grades, not only to those pupils who do but to those who do not reach the University. Digressing for a moment, I would commend this beneficial effect of an efficient higher grade upon all below it to the attention of some who, of late, have been proposing to abolish the High School, and who are ignorant of or ignore the fact, well known to educators, that without the High School the lower schools would be comparatively worthless. A University, complete in all its appointments, would add greatly to the efficiency of every department of our schools.

Third, I would recommend a provision in the law for a grade of certificate between the state and the county certificate. For this purpose the State could be divided into four or five districts with a Board of Examiners in each, appointed by the Commisioner, which should hold semi-annual examinations, at some central point, and grant certificates valid throughout the district for five

* Delivered before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 5, 1871.

years. Such a grade of certificate would be eagerly sought for by a large class of teachers.

COUNTY SUPERVISION.

Last, but not least, I would call attention to county supervision. I bring it up not in contrast with, and particularly not in opposition to, any other measure, but as our most urgent educational need; one which would produce the greatest and earliest benefit and, having which, other needed measures would follow. One great reason of the superiority of town and city schools is their efficient supervision, and it is worthy of notice that late changes in these schools aim at more supervision. The teachers of this State have been for years persistently seeking from our Legislature this addition to our school force, without success. Is it not worthy of serious consideration, whether the reason of this failure be not with ourselves? Does it not hint that we should go to the people and that teachers should take a more active part in choosing our Representatives? I must frankly say that I can see no valid reason why the teacher should be a political eunuch—why he should not, in common with his fellow-citizens, secure, so far as he may be able, the nomination of men who will represent his views in educational as well as in other matters. I am loth to believe that the people of Ohio are so far behind the people of other leading States in intelligent interest in education, as our lack of County Supervision and Normal Schools would indicate. Upon the adoption of our general school law in 1853, and for some years thereafter, we led the van. But having made little progress since, other States have taken the lead. In my opinion we must look in the direction I have indicated for the remedy.

With these suggestions relative to modifications of our school laws, I pass to the next topic,

INDIVIDUALITY.

This term may be defined as "power from within to assimilate objects from without, the result of which assimilation is character." My object, which is to counteract an opposite tendency rapidly on the increase in our schools, may perhaps be best attained by pointing out some of the evils arising from a lack of individuality. A lack of it in Superintendents leads to those ponderous and intricate schemes or courses of study, in which every detail as to order and time is minutely elaborated, leaving no room for the development of tact or skill in teachers. Unable, from a lack of individuality or force of character, to arouse and inspire his teachers by a discussion of principles, he lays down a system of rules which are mere trammels, and his highest aim is the enforcement of some pet theory. How much of this do we see producing apples of Sodom, fair to the eye but ashes to the taste, yet regarded as evidence of wonderful wisdom and progress.

A want of independence, resulting from a lack of individuality, leads to the frequent changes of text-books, of which there is justly so much complaint Some publisher, actuated of course by a desire "to supply a long felt want,' issues a new book and succeeds in securing its adoption in one or more of our larger cities, by means which, if report be true, render such adoption of the

ook no evidence of its merits, and presently it is adopted throughout the ngth and breadth of the land. In a few months comes another work upon ie same subject, but by a different publisher, and, by like means, secures a ke adoption and sale; and so on, *ad nauseam*. This is a crying evil and s brought no little stigma upon our profession; and it will continue till ichers take books, not upon testimonials, but upon examination; not from portunity, but from merit. Let me add that the best teachers find least ed for change, depending as they do more upon their own knowledge than on text-books.

But in nothing perhaps has a want of individuality, that power which pre- its servile imitation, produced greater perversion than in object lessons. ject lessons have their place and value, though their sphere is narrow, be- ise the most important truths can not thus be taught. In primary schools y are of great value, though it is not my design to treat of their place value, but simply to refer to them to show that for lack of individuality chers have sadly perverted them. Having obtained great popularity, he o did not teach them, was "behind the times." Publishers, shrewd always see the signs of the times, took advantage of the "new departure," and oks upon all sorts of subjects and for all grades of classes, as we were ured by the prefaces, "were written upon the object-lesson system." In graphy, for instance, so strongly did the preface assert its adheraece to the bject-lesson method," that one expected on opening the book to hear the ılets murmur, the brooks gurgle, the rivers flow, the cataracts thunder, l the earthquakes crash! And yet, upon examination, these books were nd no whit different from their much abused predecessors. Land was resented by one color, water by another, rivers by lines, and towns by dots circles. And teachers fell in with the current and soon were successful ect teachers, without understanding a principle upon which object lessons : based, and the less they knew the louder the hue and cry against all who not speak their shibboleth. Instead of *drawing-out* lessons they have be- ne *pouring-in* lessons, far worse than the palmiest days of the *memoriter* thod. That method gave connected facts which, if not of immediate use, least formed a store from which to draw in after life. Whereas, under the bject-lesson," pouring-in process, the mind receives a heterogeneous mass, hout order, harmony or concord, of no use now or hereafter.

INDIVIDUALITY IN PUPILS.

Says Whipple, the celebrated essayist, "'All solid intellectual culture is nply the right development of individuality." Says a distinguished educator of r day, "Each unfolding human character should be left free to be itself, to tain its individuality." Taking it for granted that these quotations set forth admitted truth, let us consider what stands opposed to that development of e individuality of each pupil. Foremost stands the percentage system of omotion as it obtains in a majority of our schools. What is this system? list of questions in the required studies is put before the pupil for him to swer. A certain number of correct answers gives him the requisite per nt. for promotion; all less than that constitute a failure. First among

minor objections to this system is the fact that no set of questions can be so framed that all are equally important or equal tests of knowledge; yet all count alike. Again, the peculiar temperament of the pupil or his peculiar condition at the time has much to do with the result. It is an important period in school life. A comes to it with trepidation and fear. Nervous and excited, he can scarcely tell the simplest thing he knows, and so fails. B, being of a cooler temperament and more self-possessed, has full command of his faculties, and comes off with honor. Yet A, who fails, is really the best scholar. And this is no imaginary case, as every teacher knows. I have never known such an examination in which some poorer scholar did not present a better paper than one who knew more. These are minor objections, but they show that the system is a failure, even where it can be best applied. The great objection is that it utterly ignores some of the most important elements which ought to be taken into consideration. Regularity of attendance, studious habits, good behavior, the peculiar surroundings at home, etc., etc., are not taken account of in this system. The teacher who fully understands all these circumstances and who is really the best judge in the case, just at the time when of all others he should be consulted, is entirely excluded and has no voice in the matter. And to make the system as rigid and frigid as possible, to make the exclusion of all these considerations absolutely certain, the pupil is known by his number and not by his name. The inevitable result is *cramming*. The teacher, knowing that his own standing depends upon the number promoted from his class, crams with just what is required. No matter what he knows, only what he can repeat. Cramming grows out of this system, and cramming crushes out all individuality. If, as an eloquent writer says, "Education is that culture which develops, enlarges and enriches each individual intelligence according to the measure of its capacity," the true teacher must study the peculiar characteristics of each pupil under his charge, and there can be no real education without it.

Then percentage can not constitute the sole criterion for promotion, because it is not even a correct test in things to which it can be applied, but, more especially, because there are many things to be considered to which it can not be applied at all. I am well aware that most of the views advanced under this head "are not in the line of safe precedent"; that, in fact, they are quite heretical. They are, however, the result of long observation and experience, and, though extemporaneously and therefore loosely presented, they have not been hastily formed.

UNCLASSIFIED SCHOOLS.

To further soften the rigidity of our school system, and to extend the benefits of our schools to the greatest possible number, there should be in towns and cities of 5,000 or more inhabitants an unclassified department, which should be under the care of the most competent and successful teachers. In these towns and cities there is always quite a number of children who are obliged to work as late in the fall and as early in the spring as possible, and therefore attend school but about three months in the year. An unclassified school would take in this class, together with others who, from irregularity of attendance or other causes, would be excluded from the regular classes. In

our strife for high scholarship, have we not neglected to accommodate our schools to the actual wants of the community? Our schools are designed to benefit all classes, all conditions and circumstances, and, in making our rules and regulations, we should not lose sight of this. If any considerable number of children, on account of being obliged to work, can go to school but a short time, they are entitled to the full benefit of the schools for that time, and we have no right to ignore this class. They can not enter the regular classes without being more hindrance to others than benefit to themselves, and therefore special provision should be made for them. Hence the necessity for unclassified schools. Make this special provision, and many, now lukewarm friends or open opponents from a feeling that their children are virtually excluded from the schools, will become active supporters. When thus providing for the masses, accommodating the schools to the actual rather than the ideal, becomes the dominating idea, some essential changes in or additions to our school arrangements will be made, especially in our larger cities. A fuller discussion of this thought would be interesting, but, not falling within my present purpose, I pass to the final topic,

MORAL TRAINING.

Channing said in his day: "The exaltation of talent, as it is called, above virtue and religion, is the curse of the age. Education is now chiefly a stimulus to learning, and thus men acquire power without the principles which alone make it a good. Talent is worshiped; but, if divorced from rectitude, it will prove more of a demon than a God." And this evil, thus vividly portrayed, has increased rather than diminished since Channing's day. There can be no doubt that the improvement in our schools, of which we boast, has been confined almost wholly to physical and intellectual education. Our strife has been to excel in that which could be tabulated and measured by *per cent.*; that which would bring us present honor and reward. Here is doubtless the secret of the neglect of moral training in our schools. Whilst yielding a ready theoretical assent to the truth that the training of the heart is of vastly more consequence than that of the body or the intellect, we practically ignore it because the results are more distant and not to be measured out to our credit. I can not agree with those who deem moral training surrounded with any greater difficulties than physical or intellectual. How do we succeed in either? By carefully studying the laws governing each. Correct physical training is the result of correct physical knowledge. He succeeds best in mental training, who best understands the laws of mind. Knowing its various faculties or powers, the order of their development and their mutual inter-dependence, he is ready for his work. So with the moral powers. There is no advancement anywhere except by discovery of and obedience to law. To illustrate: Water and heat have existed with precisely the same qualities from the creation till now; yet the agency of steam, which has almost changed the history of the race, is but of recent date. Iron and electricity have existed with precisely the same qualities from creation till now; yet the telegraph is of yesterday. And these great inventions, as we term them, are simply discoveries—discoveries of the laws imparted to those elements by God. As in the material so in the moral,

we can only make progress by discovery and application of law. But here comes in a striking difference. Material law must be discovered by our own observation and effort. Moral law is expressly revealed. And we find *love* revealed as the great law of the moral world; as pervasive and universal as gravity in the physical. The teacher who has this, has the great element of success; that element without which there is no true success. Another law is that like begets like—"the herb yielding seed and the fruit tree yielding fruit after his kind." Moral life is not the creation of moral phrases. The words which are vital forces for good or evil, are those only which, as Pindar says, "the tongue draws up from the deep heart." The first element, then, in teaching morality is personal character. He who is impure can not teach purity, try he never so hard. As true the moral as the chemical test. As oxygen, however labeled, when thrown into the crucible gives only oxygenic products; so immorality, however speciously disguised or named, gives its own proper result. The first element, then, is the purity and nobility of the teacher himself; for we teach more by unconscious than by conscious influence. We teach most when least thinking of teaching at all. We are apt to underrate the importance of unconscious teaching. As in nature those forces which are attended by most display are not the strongest,—as light is at once the gentlest and mightiest force,—so the influences which are constantly but unconsciously flowing out from us and which inevitably partake of and reveal our real nature, are more effectual than those which we consciously exert. But as light, though the mightiest, is not the only force in nature, so we need more than unconscious teaching. We need also direct teaching—"line upon line, precept upon precept; here a little and there a little." And where shall we get it but from the great storehouse of Divine Revelation.

But here I shall be met with the cry of sectarianism from those who are opposed to all moral teaching as well as from those who do not properly value such teaching, as though there were nothing in the Bible but sectarianism. As though to give to the child the teaching of our Saviour, when asked if we should forgive "till seven times", he replied, "till seventy times seven", were sectarian! As though to say to the child, "Do unto others as you would they should do unto you", were sectarian! As though there were anything sectarian in reading to the child that passage in which, speaking of her who cast in her mite, Jesus said, "She hath cast in more than they all." As though it were sectarian to teach the child the application of the principle thus enunciated, that he may be just as pure, just as noble, just as great in all the minor relations of life as in the higher; that when he is a good child, when he is a good son, when he performs cheerfully all those things which daily come to his hand there is just as much nobility, just as much greatness in the sight of God as though he sat on the throne of the empire of all the earth. As though it would be sectarian to teach him that it is the Bible which thus ennobles common life and casts a ray of light and beauty over the humblest lot. As though it would be sectarian to teach him the brotherhood of man and the fatherhood of God by reading to him, "Inasmuch as ye have done it unto the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me"! As though it would be sectarian to teach him by reading, "The first shall be last and the last shall be first", the

he judgment of the present will not be the judgment of the future—that there s a day coming when he shall be judged by one who looketh at the heart and ot at the outward circumstances and surroundings.

Fellow teachers, if we become permeated with this morality and Christianity ught in the Bible, it will elevate us to a nobility which will be noble indeed;) that our pathway, instead of being one of trial, trouble, and drudgery, will : one of beauty and joy and glory. (Applause.)

DISCUSSION OF THE PRESIDENT'S INAUGURAL.

E. E. WHITE: I hope that the points of the President's address will be thorghly discussed by the Association. If this address does not provoke discussion, e President has missed his aim.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati: I am delighted with the staight-forward, clear d able manner in which the thoughts of the President have been presented to-day ; t you will scarcely be surprised to learn that I differ from him in some important ints. So far from believing that object teaching, or the object method, is a nar- w one, limited in its application, I believe it to be very broad, and susceptible of a ry much larger application, and a much wider range of subjects than has hereto- e been taught. If teachers heretofore have rushed into any school and offered to ich by this new method without understanding it thoroughly, I believe they are hing from the method. But this is one of the most important points, it seems to), that can engage the attention of teachers, not only in Ohio, but every-where. is is the point upon which every other point must inevitably turn. Is there a ilosophy in education? If there is, what is that philosophy? I have not time argue the question this morning, but I believe that, in the object method, and in ject lessons, we have discovered the true philosophy of education, which is the le development of the mind. We may differ in details in the manner of present- g this method; for Mr. Rickoff, you will remember, made a distinction last even- g between manner and method in teaching,—but I believe that the object method a philosophical one, and I am surprised and pained to see teachers, whom I have emed the most advanced in this method, now taking, as it seems to me, a retro- ade movement respecting it. I believe that some have regarded it as a kind of ism an that would give a kind of education at once, without effort. But we all ow that nature's methods are slow in their development; mind grows slowly and ist grow according to nature's method when it grows healthily. So with the object ethod. It does not train or develop with spasmodic power, but in a natural and althy growth. As I have been accustomed to say, it seems to me that it unites ture's method with the more artificial ones of our schools, and thus harmonises, it were, the thought of man with the thought of God. So much for that point. I stand here this morning, ladies and gentlemen, as the advocate of a thorough id extended education. I have no sentimentalism in my nature. With regard to ie means of carrying this out, as was remarked yesterday, the man who gets the ost and best work out of his pupils, is the best educator. We can not contrive ny system of education that can make good scholars by any mere method or by our ympathy. The argument urged by the President against percentages this morn- ag, can, it seems to me, be urged equally well against a system of graded schools. value the importance of developing the individuality of the pupil as highly as any an can; but I see certain things must be sacrificed, if we are to teach in graded

schools at all. No teacher of a graded school with fifty pupils can teach them inc vidually. He must, to some extent, teach them in mass; and the great principle graded schools is to teach pupils in classes, without sacrificing too much their indi viduality. Teaching in mass has greater advantages, I believe, than teachin individually. To combine these two principles, however, in their just proportions, so that one will not be sacrificed to the other, is, as I have said, a great problem. I believe this can not be done by letting down the bar of thorough scholarship—by s sacrifice of scholarship. What we most need in this country is higher scholarship. The influence that lifts the people up, comes from above and not from below. Renan has well said, "As is the university, so will be your public schools." What we want in the United States, in every State in this country, is a great university and congregations of learned Christian scholars, whose influence shall reach down and lift up. We can not, it seems to me, make our schools of the utmost benefit to the masses, unless we recognize this principle. These two points are the only ones in the address to which I wish to take exception. I approve of much of the address. I have not any thing to criticise in regard to moral instruction. We can not separate intellectual development from moral development, if we would. They will go hand in hand. The man whose mind is trained in the best way, nature's way, as I said, will be likely to grow up an honest, good-hearted, generous man. That is the way to make men, to bring them up in nature's way, and make generous men of them—frank and honest men.

W. WATKINS, of Middletown: There is a singular disposition among the prominent leaders of this Association, manifested at different times in the past five annual meetings, to cast the weight of their influence against the object method of instruction. We hear that the thing is a humbug; that it has passed by; that its day is gone; that it is out of fashion. Now, Mr. Chairman, you are not so great a heritic in your inaugural address on this object method as you supposed. I take it that you are in the fashion. It is the fashion now, and it is a good time to say that we do not believe in the object method, that we do not believe in object lessons We who stand here and say we do believe in object teaching and in object lessons *we* are the heretics. The honor of hetrodoxy and its pains and penalties belong to us

Mr. Chairman, it seems to me we are in some danger of confusing dissimila things, when we talk about object lessons. We who plead for the objective method o instruction, do not mean a little foolish, inconsequent talk about apples and stone and whatever else may be brought into the school-room. We mean to advocate natural method of procedure, from the time the pupil enters the primary depart ment of the graded school, or the A-B-C class, if an ungraded country school, clea up through all the grades and all the studies, until he passes through the university Claiming that the human mind has its successive states of development and tha the attainment of knowledge through the senses is as germain, as appropriate, t the earliest stages of school instruction as the attainment of knowledge by har thinking and solid reasoning is to the college and university students, we hol object lessons and the object method to be a part of a great general system an natural method of instruction. In the language of the Scripture, we ask, "If man know not those things that he has seen, how can he know those things tha he has not seen?" If the pupil be ignorant of the productions of this country or the productions of the fields and woods that surround him; if he knows nothing of these, how can you teach him anything about the productions of foreign countries? Mr. Chairman, we once had a different kind of pupils to deal with We gathered them in out of the country farms, where they were surrounded by nature, rude nature; where they were not tampered with by the refined cruelty of the graded school, and where they had grown up and attained a considerable gen-

eral knowledge of what surrounded them. We gathered them into our schools and put them to study, and we found that they were successful students; for nature did for them what nature does not do for the village or city child of this generation. Young as I am—for I claim to be one of those young men spoken of last night—I remember that I was very familiar in my father's family with processes of life of which my own children are entirely ignorant. I knew the whole process of obtaining food and clothing, for I saw it done right there; I knew where it all came from. I could trace the very clothing that my father and I wore, back to the sheep which I saw in the meadow. My children can not do this. They know nothing about these things. In the refinement of the civilization that surrounds them our children are ignorant of nature's processes—of the things that the former generations knew something about; and this ignorance of these city and village children has got to be complemented by a course of school instruction in those things which were attained by other generations without any school instruction. Our children are not in contact with nature and consequently the school work has wonderfully enlarged. If the school can not attain to this high standard, if it can not take on itself more than it has heretofore, it will inevitably fail. If you teach your school without object lessons, and with no appropriate supplement of the old method, we know very well what your school will amount to in the higher branches. Some of us know that we can not succeed in teaching geometry to pupils who have no perceptions of figure or form. We can not teach a pupil the properties of a figure this minute, and then teach him to reason on these properties the next minute. The thing has got to have time to settle itself in the mind, to find its place. We claim that object lessons and objective instruction, not used foolishly and without judgment, but wisely and skillfully applied, are a part of a general system—a natural system of education.

I was very much pleased, Mr. Chairman, to hear your remarks on moral instruction. It is a department we have too greatly neglected; but I think that when we begin to talk about moral instruction, we lay entirely too much stress on dogmatic instruction. The human mind is willful above all things. Tell the child to attend to a thing, and you may rest assured that he will not attend to it. Tell him "you ought," and you may be sure that, in the depths of his heart, he will answer you, "I will not." The less we say and the less dogmatic instruction is given in the common schools, or in any other schools, the better for us—however good such instruction may be intrinsically. The harder and the stronger and the more persistently we teach our children morality by means of dogma, the more lamentable will be our failure. We have got to give this thing up. Now, Mr. Chairman, here is one other point. Those things which belong to the dogmatics of the Christian religion can not be taught in the public schools of Ohio. The Jew is very frequently in our public schools, and the Constitution of the State of Ohio discriminates not between Jew and Christian. That which is dogmatical and distinctly Christian in religion can not be taught in the public schools without we choose to trample upon the sacred rights of a portion of our fellow-citizens, to educate their children in that religion which they themselves consider to be untrue. I do not think that you meant this, though there was something in the expression that sounded a little like it. I take it, however, as a *lapsus*. We must have this matter distinctly understood, that in the public schools we wish to gather the population of the whole country, of every phase of religious belief, and so to educate them that we shall be able to make one people. When we do so, we must accord to the Jew, the one Jewish child in the school, the same rights that would be done if the Jews were in the majority. The inculcation of that which is distinctly Jewish in the school would be wrong, no matter how great their majority may be in the district, and the inculcation of that which is distinctively, dogmatically and doctrin-

ally Christian in school is wrong. It is wrong everywhere, and we must say so *distinctly*. I presume there is no one of us who does not profess, in certain senses and certain ways, the Christian religion; but for one, I will rise here and say that I do not intend to cram the Christian religion down the throats of Jewish children, or of children whose parents have an objection to it, whether they be atheist, infidel, or of any other belief. As a practical matter, there are such children in every one of our school-rooms. I believe just as much in moral instruction as anybody else; in such religious instruction as is right; but I will not violate the rights of the minority. It is a sacred right which I claim for myself, to educate my children in the religion I consider true, without the interference of the common school teacher, and I freely and willingly accord this right to my neighbor as distinctly as I claim it for myself.

PRESIDENT DEUEL: I made no objection to object teaching. I did say it was narrow, and Mr. Hancock took that up; that was correct. Mr. Watkins seems to understand me to object to the method. I used it simply to show that we move with the current, and do not think for ourselves. I used it simply as an illustration of another point. Those discussing it hereafter need not misunderstand that point.

A MEMBER: I understood you to say that you thought a man should have so much individuality, that he can not take up another man's method and follow it.

THE PRESIDENT: I said if he could only imitate and copy it, it would be no good to him. He must transmute it, at any rate, into his own method.

C. W. HEYWOOD, of East Cleveland: I rise to put one thought in connection with two others which the President presented in his Address. He objected distinctly and positively, as I understood him, to the rigid, methodical precision of the percentage system. I wish to call attention to that objection in connection with the recommendation made by him and the persistence with which the idea was pressed, that in all our graded schools there should be an unclassified department. It seems to me that the unclassified department is the remedy for the evils arising from the application of the percentage system to those pupils who are surrounded by the peculiar circumstances of which he spoke, those home influences which take them out of school in a short time. The pupil that has failed to come up to the percentage standard, and whose home influences are such that he can not remain in the school for any great length of time to complete the course, is the very one, it seems to me, for whom this unclassified department should be provided, and he should be placed in the hand of just such a teacher as was proposed for such a department, in order that he may be pressed forward to the point where he can go on with the class. The proposition with reference to an unclassified department, is one upon which I have thought much, and which I once presented to the board of education with which I have been connected. It seems to me that no graded school in a small town can be successful without it. In a city, like Cincinnati or Cleveland, it may be possible to dispense with it, but in a small town where five or six hundred pupils are distributed over eight or nine square miles, it is impossible for us so to grade and bring classes together that we can put them in the hand of a teacher, and not do violence to some of them. In such a school, it seems to me that an unclassified department is absolutely necessary to its successful management. I do not wish to take the time of the convention to express at length ideas upon this topic, but I will say one thing: It seems to me that it is not right to put back a scholar because he falls one, two, or three per cent., on an average, below the seventy-five per cent. required, and especially when such failure on the average is produced by a marked deficiency in some one study. I should be very loth to have such a system applied to my own children, and it seems to me that I should be very loth to apply such a discouragement to any

boy that had any desire for improvement in him, and I can see no way out of the difficulty better than the one proposed—an unclassified department.

JOHN OGDEN, of Worthington: There were a few points made by the gentlemen last but one on the floor, which I wish to notice. I allude to his remarks in regard to teaching Christianity. I understood the President, in his remarks, simply to refer to those general principles of right and duty that ought to be inculcated in any religious instruction—that ought to be inculcated in every system and process of education. We claim that Christianity is true. Now ought we not to teach the truth. So long as we are afraid of Christianity, so long Christianity will be afraid of us, and so long we shall fail to accomplish the higher objects of education. Then, again, there are things connected with the Jewish religion, with the Mohammedan religion, with the Christian religion, which, as I understood the President, could be taught without trenching at all upon sectarianism; without interfering with the particular belief or beliefs of any denomination of people. I understood the President simply to allude to the great object of teaching, the inculcation of the truth, and that was Christ's mission into the world. The teacher of the present day should imitate, as far as possible, the pattern set by the Great Teacher. I regret to hear any dissent from the views of the President in the admirable address to which we have listened. I think the impressions were of such a character that they must do good; they must go out and distribute themselves among the counties and districts of this State—and specially the noble sentiment in reference to teaching duty and nobility of character, which we may do in any religion. My friends, we owe this building, we owe our progress, we owe our school system—the noble school system of the noble State of Ohio—to the Christian religion, and shal lwe be afraid of it, and spurn it whilst we teach? I will teach it everywhere. (Applause.) The commerce of the world is indebted to Christianity; the progress of the world to-day that shines everywhere—science, art, everything—is indebted to Christianity; and I say we ought not to be afraid of it, nor afraid to speak of it. The Jew will love us better, the Mohammedan will love us better, and the Atheist will love us better, because this is God's truth and we are working in God's vineyard.

W. W. ROSS, of Fremont: There was one suggestion made by the President that struck me forcibly. He made the suggestion, with unnecessary caution as I believe, that American teachers should become more active participants in American politics. Why should teachers abstain from taking an active part in the great political questions coming before Americans? Why should American teachers refuse to act their part in those higher duties which we owe to our State and Country? Why should it longer be asserted, as it has so frequently been, that American teachers are without political influence in the State or Country? I have felt utterly disgusted with the profession of teaching, and I have resolved a thousand times to quit its ranks forever, simply from this fact. The want of toleration that has characterized the American people has caused many to deem it impossible for a person to occupy the position of a teacher and take an active part in the politics of their country. But we may rejoice that that era in American politics is past; that its days are numbered forever, and that American teachers may release themselves from this thralldom, and place themselves in a position where they may greatly advance the interests of education in our Country and State. (Applause.)

C. T. CURRAN, of Cincinnati: There are one or two things I wish to say with regard to object lessons and percentage. The object-lesson business is, I suppose, all right. Every one that has studied the subject of education, feels that the philosophy of the matter is correct. The objections that are brought against it are always made by persons who have seen it adopted by piecemeal, and caried it into effect

by lesson hearers and not by teachers. (Applause.) I conceive that if a superintendent of a school, having no philosophy of education of his own, goes to his primary department, and says, "Here, girls, I want you to get some sticks, stones, and flowers, and have object lessons in this school, giving half an hour to them each day," it will be a failure. I know that if sticks and stones and flowers had been put into my hands when I was of the age of most of the lady teachers of the State, and a good while afterward, and I had been told to give object lessons, I should have thought that my chief aim was to make the pupils understand that this was a stick, and that a stone, etc. Those who know what object lessons are, know that such instruction is not object teaching. The thing must be systematized. The school must be an object school; it must not be anything else but an object school, or else it will be a failure. A man in Cincinnati once taught a Pestalozzian school, composed of boys not exceeding eleven or twelve years of age. Most of them came to the school which Mr. Rickoff formerly taught, and which I had the honor to teach afterward. The boys who came from that school knew but little arithmetic. When I examined them, I thought that they were the most ignorant set of fellows I ever saw, and I said, "Christians can not teach school." But when I undertook to teach these boys, I found them brim full of knowledge, and, if I may say so, of receptivity. They were the brightest fellows in my class. They did not know anything about books, but they were ready to learn all about them and the things books teach. You might ask them about the rules of technical grammar, or the rules of arithmetic, and they would show that they knew nothing about them. They knew the multiplication table, and they could add, subtract, multiply, and divide. It was a pleasure to teach those fellows. Their minds were on the alert, and when I commenced talking about anything, they were ready to respond, were eager and bright.

Now, a few words in regard to this matter of percentage. I suppose it is absolutely necessary to have some system of percentage in school instruction. I know there are those who pretend to be natural teachers, natural-method men,—men who abhor text-books, percentage, etc. On the other hand, there is not a large city with graded schools, in which the teachers are not continuously running in a groove, and the teachers have no chance to get out, but must go straight forward. You remember the circumstance related last year, concerning the Philadelphia lady teacher who said she was preparing "wares for the market." She had good common sense, and hence was not going to sacrifice herself for what she could not obtain, and it is not possible that teachers can do any better under this system. Take, as an example, a city of a hundred thousand inhabitants, where the schools are organized with principals and subordinate teachers. An active, shrewd business fellow has charge of say fifteen hundred children. He has been raised in the city, has been associated with business men, and knows *what pays*. When it comes to the examination, he says: "My business is to kick every fellow out of my school, who will not creditably go through it," and he brings all his influence to bear to effect it. At the end of a few months, they have a preliminary examination—and now comes the day of his glory. The average age of the children in his department is say twelve years. He says: "Now there are A, B, C, X, and Y who can not pass, and I must get rid of them. What is to be done? Why this examination must send them back. Some of them have been here before. They were up last year; this is the second time for them." Now then what takes place. The parents find that their children are turned back, and they take them out of school. Out of 20,000 pupils, eight hundred, as statistics show, are thus sent out of school every year. I have no remedy to suggest. In the national school at West Point, the men are not all in equal grades but in sections, and are promoted in sections; and the "lame ducks" are brought forward in that way, and helped over these bridges where they are dropped. I think if there were

some system like this in our graded schools, we might carry many pupils farther than decimal fractions in arithmetic. In many places, it is very difficult to give pupils even a moderate English education, so many of them drop out of school when they become ten or twelve years of age.

J. B. PEASLEE, of Cincinnati: I think this question of object lessons one that is looked at in a one-sided way, and I believe there is no teacher in Ohio, who does not believe that the object method is the true method, and should be used in the development of the mind. Every branch of study should be taught by this method. I think object lessons should come in with other studies. There are pupils who are driven back, absolutely back, without the means of getting a true idea of object lessons. My idea is, that these lessons should be given in connection with composition-writing. When ideas are developed, then let pupils write a composition on the subject, and let the results of the teaching, as shown in the composition, be marked, and not the dry facts be brought out.

I wish to say one word with regard to politics. I do not believe that a teacher should meddle with politics, except so far as he can benefit the schools by it—and in that way only. If teachers should take a decided stand, and appear in public as decided politicians, I believe it would be the ruination of our public schools. I have known some schools nearly ruined by it.

E. E. WHITE: Allusion has been made to the fact, that members of this Association have spoken against the objective method of teaching. I suppose that I would be included among those who have thus spoken in the Association, but I think there is a misunderstanding in regard to this matter. Those who were present yesterday, know very well that the utterances of some of the speakers were apparently in opposition to their utterances a year ago. They had apparently changed front—a fact largely due to the consideration of different phases of the same subject. Here is my friend Curran, of Cincinnati, who last year was understood to denounce object teaching, yet to-day he comes out as the advocate of the method. This is the explanation: Those who discussed this subject last year were trying to correct an abuse of the object method, to expose an incorrect view of it, and hence those who failed to take the bearing of the whole discussion, judged that they were opposed to the method itself. I am a believer in the objective method of teaching, but I do not believe that it is the only method, or the whole method, and I shall continue to guard teachers against its adoption as a complete method of instruction. I believe that there is a place for the old methods; that a true method of teaching combines the different methods into one harmonious and philosophical system. Those who take the object-lesson method and run it into an extreme as the whole thing, are not really its best friends. I wish to show, in a few words, that the objective-method has its natural limits, and I could not have a better opportunity than to put it right beside what has been said by one of the speakers on moral instruction. Take the dogma of the objective method that a child is never to be taught anything, the truth of which he is not led to see by the power of his own reason. Every truth is to be developed. The teacher is to begin back to what the child has seen or felt or touched, and, by natural steps, lead him to the truth which he is to believe. This is the object method carried to an extreme, and when a man takes this view, he will denounce all authoritative teaching in morals, as has been done here to-day. Such a view leaves no place for authority in teaching, and it at once rules out the most valuable instruction that can be given in our schools. A child is not best taught that it is wrong to steal or lie or to injure a fellow by beginning back with sense knowledge, and leading him to see the wrong by a process of reasoning. I like to say to my little children, at my knee, that they should not do this or that, and I wish them to look up trustingly and lovingly into their father's face and accept what he says as truth, and not because

he has gone through a process of reasoning to explain it. I wish to stand in the school-room with an authority higher than my own. When I say to my pupils, "Thou shalt love thy neighbor as thyself", I wish their minds and hearts to go up to an authority higher than I, and to feel that this is the voice of the Father who is above all. When God's authority and man's obligation to obey Him are ignored, moral instruction is without a foundation. Such instruction will never save the race from crime, vice, and ruin—never! I am opposed to the teaching of dogmatic theology in public schools—to technical religious instruction; but there is a place for God in every school, a place for the recognition of His authority. If we are to teach a morality that will purify human life, we must teach something more than the natural virtues, enforced by the authority of human experience. The human conscience must hear, "Thus saith the Lord." Hence moral instruction can not be given on the distinctive principles of the object method, and to attempt it is to make a fatal mistake. There is a place for the inductive processes in teaching, and there is a place for truth coming from an authority which ought to be believed. A child has faith as well as reason, and it ought to be cultivated. The objective method is in danger of being widened to embrace knowledge which it can not teach. There is a large section of knowledge which lies beyond it. While we recognize the truth and worth of this method, let us carefully keep it in its own sphere.

[Mr. Curran read an extract from the remarks he made on this subject in the Teachers' Association last year as reported in the OHIO EDUCATIONAL MONTHLY, to show the ground he then occupied on the question.]

T. D. CROW, of Columbus: I am glad to find that while in the first flash there may be considerable disagreement, such as will produce discussion and illustrate the beautiful motto we have here before us, "*Nulla vestigia retrorsum*", let there be no steps taken backward, when we come to settle down upon principles, we agree in the main. Now to the point I wish to notice. In the excellent address to which we have listened, and to which a little exception has been taken, I notice a suggestion that the Agricultural and Mechanical College of Ohio should be made the head of the common schools. With all deference I would say that I think this is impracticable. The Agricultural and Mechanical College will be a success only by keeping it to its own department. It can not be strictly and primarily a literary institution of the highest grade, nor can it be the head of the common school system. It must be what Congress intended, a Mechanical and Agricultural College. The common schools of the State must stand by themselves as the basis of our political liberties and our moral culture. They must stand as our only hope of a broad and liberal culture of the youth of the land, to prepare them to fill their places in this free government.

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

The committee to whom was referred the President's Inaugural Address, made its report on Thursday afternoon (see the Secretary's minutes). In behalf of the committee, Mr. Hancock reported the following resolution:

Resolved, That we regard Objective Teaching as an essential element of a true method of instruction, and Object Lessons as a necessary part of a correct course of study.

PRES. E. T. TAPPAN, of Gambier: For the teaching of certain subjects, this may be true, but for the teaching of other subjects I do not believe it to be true. I do not feel like entering into this discussion now, but it seems to me that, in advocating the objective method, we have lost sight of the true principles of education. We talk all the while about method as if some one method would apply to everything, and

as if the whole secret of success in the work of the teacher consists in finding such a method; and the objective method is held to be the key to unlock everything in our art. Now the object of teaching is sometimes a pure mental exercise. I believe that this is the case in a very large part of mathematics. I admit that the objective method must be used at the start; that in the beginning there must be the concrete. I would like to see this resolution modified so that it may express the fact distinctly that there are different things to be taught, and that one method may be best for some and other methods for others. The defect in the resolution is, that it does not recognize this distinction.

MR. HANCOCK: It may seem strange that two members of the same committee are arrayed against each other. I think, however, the difference depends more on form than on meaning. The committee did not think it necessary to name the branches to which we believe the object method may be applied, because teachers may not agree on this point. What we mean in the resolution by the "course of instruction" is not any division of it, but a course of instruction reaching from the primary grade to the highest grades; and, viewing it in that light, we do not think you can leave out the objective method as an element, as a part of such a course of instruction.

PRES. TAPPAN: I agree to that.

HON. W. D. HENKLE: I am rather disposed to go farther than Mr. Hancock in this matter. I think there is nothing we learn, that we can not learn objectively. Before faith there must be an object—the evidence of things not seen. Whatever the mind takes under consideration is an object. Even metaphysical views and consciousness are objects, the same as the material objects which we see around us. Now I think I stated the pith of this matter of object teaching at Zanesville, in 1866. It is getting as near the original source as possible in every thing. The best kind of object teaching in reference to the geography of Put-in-Bay, is to go over there (laughter), as we could thus get the best representation of it. I say the best kind of learning is the learning derived from original sources; that is what we ought to seek. If a man can have a faith of his own, that is original. So I think that the triangles and all the lines in geometry are in the mind, just as surely as if the triangles were made of sticks and the lines were drawn on the blackboard, and they become just as directly objects of investigation as the objects themselves. It would be a very difficult thing to investigate anything very well, without investigating it as an object.

T. D. CROW: I rise to say that I think the resolution is about correct. It says precisely enough, not a word too much. Suppose a resolution was introduced by this committee for the action of the Association, declaring that arithmetic is one part of a true course of study, it would not be very wise to question such a resolution because mental philosophy and moral science or rhetoric are not included in it. The resolution asserts that this method of communicating information, and of giving mental discipline, is a part of the regular system of training. I like the resolution because it is a compromise of things that may be compromised. It is not strictly true that we learn everything by objects. I take issue with the last speaker when he affirms that studying the properties of triangles may be considered as object method or object teaching. The boy may be taught to construct a triangle upon his slate, and he may consider these lines that meet the eye as objects; but when he comes to the definiton of a line, and to form a conception of a line, an angle, or a triangle and its properties, he has in fact nothing to do with the object. Yet when he begins his mathematical course, he must have something to impress on the eye before he can learn the use of the characters called figures. When he begins to learn his definitions in geometry, it is a great aid, perhaps a necessary aid, to have a diagram which may present to the eye and through the eye to the understanding, the

meaning of the definition; but this is not what is legitimately the objective method or object teaching, because this is the mere effort or representation conveying to the mind an idea, a crude, indefinite idea, which may suggest thought or develop the true idea that can be obtained from material things; these may be held in their formation by material objects, but when the thought itself is fully developed, and other thoughts are brought into juxtaposition and new thoughts eliminated, and these put together and a mental framework erected, there is no longer any foundation of material things to rest upon. These are merely helps that address the mind through the senses. There is a world that reaches beyond this, of course, as President Tappan remarked. Object teaching does not apply to that, but the resolution affirms that this a part; that is all it means.

A. J. RICKOFF, of Cleveland: Object lessons have so many friends here, able ones too, that it seems needless for me to say anything in their behalf. For the faith that is in me, however, I am willing to give my testimony this afternoon, as upon every occasion when it is in any sense desirable. The light in which I look at object teaching is this: it is but the continuation at school of the work which is commenced at home by the intelligent father and mother. When the little child begins to receive instruction, words are but the media of communication between the parent and child in regard to the things which he can readily observe—the things that lie all about him. Thoughtful parents who give attention to the education of their children at this early stage, through conversation about common things, give direction to the attention, excite observation, and provoke thought, and, in this way, language, we all know, is most surely and successfully cultivated. These conversations are object lessons, and the child that has had the advantages of them at the mother's and father's knee goes into school at the age of six or seven an intelligent child, though he may not know how to read, though he may know nothing, indeed, of that which passes current in the school-room as education. But for what those parents have done, their children would pass into the school-room like the mass of children that come from the homes of the ignorant. Now I would have this process of education continued for those who may happily have taken the first steps, and I would have it commenced for those whose faculties have not been already awakened. For both I would have this work done in school—not the same in form as the home culture of the fortunate few, that would be impossible; but it ought to be of the same kind and have the same end in view—the making of children thoughtful and intelligent in regard to the things that lie immediately about them. The work of the teacher ought to continue the work of the educated father and mother, or to supply its want, so far as possible, in the case of those whose home culture is neglected. In the case of the former, I would have the course of the nursery continued. A sudden change of one method for another, is contrary to the teachings of nature. True growth is a gradual development under like influence from the first to the last. I would, therefore, have the same methods extended through the whole course of instruction at school. Even among scientists the man who goes to nature or to original sources for his facts, always does better than he who relies upon books for his information. The cultivation of that habit is all that we ask for in the discipline of the schools.

For one I believe heartily in this method of instruction wherever, from the nature of the subject taught, it is at all applicable. There is knowledge that springs from within ourselves, and there is knowledge that lies beyond the objects which we may bring before us. Our intuitions are essential conditions of the exercise of the intellectual faculties, and faith can not be taught by object lessons; but our intuitions make themselves felt only in the study of things, and faith becomes the stronger the better we know them. In the most profound and wide-reaching prosecution of the

iences, which after all treat only of the things that are about us, we come to a limit eyond which, in our finite intelligence, we can not go. The more we know, the ıore we know to be unknowable. That is the subject of the sublimest of all mental tates—simple faith, trust in the Infinite. I would have children taught to tell the ruth, not because honesty is the best policy, not simply because we have observed hat it is best for all, but because God has said, "Thou shalt not lie." Yet in the tudy of the relations of man to his fellow men, we find the injunction to be based upon the plainest necessity of society.

I would earnestly advocate this method of instruction and commend it for the adoption of all; and I would then caution them as to the faults, to which those who pursue it without thoroughly understanding its principles and carefully maturing its processes, are subject. I do not think that the dangers to which it is liable ought to be urged against it. The most delicate and subtle agents in medicine, the finest affections of the human heart, the highest enjoyments physical and mental are precisely those which are surrounded by the greatest dangers. Just so the finest and the most delicate as well as the most powerful agencies in education are liable to the most dangerous perversions.

So far I have spoken of objective instruction. But I would go further than to apply the objective method to the subjects already taught in the schools. I would have a system of object lessons so arranged as to develop the mind of the child, and to impart knowledge in all directions. We have been told that object lessons interfere with lessons in reading, in arithmetic, etc. In reply, I have only this to say, that a knowledge of the common branches of an English education as they are called—excepting reading—are of little value as compared with a knowledge of the things with which the individual is surrounded from infancy to old age. The first or elementary steps in the education of a child should be, and in the intelligent family is, in the direction of all science.

GEORGE S. ORMSBY, of Xenia: I did not intend to take part in this discussion, but there seems to be a misunderstanding as to what is meant by the term object lessons. I am not certain that I understand the term myself, and, if I do not, I judge that there may be many other friends in the same condition. The simple question is, "What do we regard as an object?" I do not know that this has been defined in all the talk about object lessons. It seems to me that the difference in our opinions—the diverging lines in our discussions—commence right there. What do we mean when we talk about object lessons? I understand an object to be some sensible thing that we can take up, look at, handle, examine as to its form, its weight, its uses, and an object lesson is one that determines what is in this object held before us, to what it belongs, what it can do—in short, all about it. Now is not that what we mean by an object lesson? You who have taught object lessons, what have you used as the instrument by which you gave this instruction? We see here on the board the representation of objects, the eagle, the hawk, the flower, the eye. Did ever any educator in the State of Ohio take what is called a mental object, a mental conception, a mental state, and hold that up before the mind of the pupil and call it an object lesson? If every conception of the human mind is an object, then object lessons, technically so called, apply to every kind of teaching. God is an object, but who has seen him? How did you get the first idea of God? Was He held up as an object that the eye could see Him, the hand handle Him? Did any parent ever place an object before the child that would illustrate this great ideal? No. We must make a distinction between our mental conceptions and those tangible things which all agree in calling objects, and if we do this we may all agree with respect to the propriety of object teaching. Now I agree entirely with the remark that we shall be successful in giving instruction when we go to ultimate facts. When we teach

mental philosophy, we should not begin with the definitions of the book, but we should call the attention of the pupil to his own mind, to his own mental states. In our teaching we must go to these ultimate facts, and then we shall be successful. This is all, sir, that I desire to say on this subject. In my judgment, there is really no difference of opinion on this subject of object teaching and its ends, and I can not see how there can be disagreement. When the child first beholds the light of the sun, he sees objects around him. He examines these objects, and all that he learns of material things from the time of his birth until he enters the school, is the result of such examination and observation.

W. WATKINS: There are two worlds with which we have to deal in education. One of these is external, is without us, and a knowledge of it we attain through the medium of the senses; the other is within us. Now if I understand what an object is, it is anything which has an existence outside of our minds—anything that can be recognized by any one of the five senses, and is known to be external to the mind; but those things which are not external to the mind, but which must exist only in the mind, are not objects. We can draw three lines upon the board, in such a way as to make three angles, and we may call the triangle formed an object; but the mathematical triangle, bounded by the three mathematical lines, is not an object, because it has no existence outside of our imagination. Now those gentlemen who are not so enthusiastic on the object method, as we could wish, are thinking about those things which exist in the realm of the mind. They recognize the great and important fact, that there is no education without the education of thought; that education fails entirely, unless it reaches this great internal world. We are not thinking as much of the world outside as they are of the world inside; but we re-recognize this great fact, that in order to enter upon this great realm within, it is necessary for us to enter through the gateway of the world without. Our conception of the mathematical triangles depends, in the first place, upon those rude figures which are drawn. They are the beginning, not the end of it. Mr. Chairman, I do not share the religious fears of some of my compeers, upon the question of object teaching There was a very distinguished teacher of religion, some time ago, that had no fear of the object method. He pointed out things in nature, and from them he reasoned—from those things that are seen, he reasoned to those things that are not seen. This fact is plainly given to us in a book, which I read in my school. In one place it says, "Consider the lilies of the field, how they grow; they toil not, neither do they spin; yet, I say unto you, that Solomon in all his glory was not arrayed like one of these." Here is the objective method exemplified.

THE PRESIDENT: It seems to me, members have wandered from the point. I dropped the single remark, that the object method was narrow in its sphere; but I did not treat of object lessons, in my address. Let every speaker take up the subject of object lessons and discuss it.

MR. WHITE: President Tappan was not present when the Committee considered the resolution reported, and it may be proper to say that the very modification which he suggests, was presented and considered. It was proposed to state, that the object method is the true method of teaching knowledge, the elements of which are obtained through the senses, and especially in teaching such elements; but, after discussion, it was thought best to say simply, that it is an "*element* of a true method," without attempting to state its place in definite terms. I desire to say that the term "object" is used in the resolution in its popular sense, as that which is cognized through the senses, and the term "objective method" designates that process of teaching in which the observation of such objects is made the basis—at least the beginning.

A. B, JOHNSON, of Avondale: It has been true for some time past, and is true now, that there is no cheaper way to get up a reputation as a progressive teacher, than to make a great noise about object teaching and object lessons. The resolution, if I heard it aright, contains two propositions. The first, which relates to objective teaching, I heartily endorse; but I am opposed to the second, which commends object lessons proper. When I go into a school, and find a teacher going through what is termed an object lesson, according to the best method, I wish also to see a class brought out and given a lesson in one of the common branches. If the recitation, though perhaps immediately following the object lesson, is entirely destitute of any illustration, or any method calculated to awaken and arouse the minds of the pupils, I conclude, and I believe justly, that there is a great deal of humbug about the objective method of teaching in that school. I should be very sorry indeed to have this Association recommend object lessons proper.

RAPIDITY OF THOUGHT. *

BY T. C. MENDENHALL, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

In the presentation of a paper on the "Rapidity of Thought," it is not my intention to view it from a metaphysical standpoint. It will doubtless appear not strictly appropriate that it should be brought before a Convention of educators, but I can not fail to see that it has or may have an important educational bearing. As instructors we are constantly brought in contact with Thought. It is the thinking part of a human being, whatever part that may be, that concerns us in our daily occupation. It is this mysterious thinking apparatus of a child which the instructor desires to at first stimulate, encourage, and assist; afterward to direct, strengthen, and supply with proper food. The instructor is in no small degree responsible for the ability of his pupil to think, to think correctly, and to think promptly. The vascillating manner of the pupil, his timid, self-distrustful answer, his frequent attempts at ambiguity, his effort to read the answer in the countenance of his instructor—all of these are evidence of his deficiency in thinking power, and his lack of what has been termed mental discipline. I do not desire to be understood that all men, or all children, are equally susceptible of becoming trained and disciplined thinkers; on the contrary I shall furnish evidence that the reverse is the case. I do desire to say that in most of our instruction—I refer in the main to schools of a higher grade—the education or training of the thinking faculties of the pupil are almost entirely neglected, to the effect that the pupil's mind becomes the store-house of the fruit of other men's harvesting, rather than a field fresh with the verdure of new truths. (In this connection let me say that, in my opinion, at the present time, the methods of instruction in use in the High Schools of all the cities and considerable towns of the State of Ohio, fall far short of those in use in the primary grades. This is undoubtedly due, or partially so, to the fact that our many industrious and able Superintendents

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have begun their work, and very properly, at the bottom; and recent improved methods of training have not been as yet so directly introduced into High School instruction.) Granted, then, that to lead children to grow up into thinking men and women, is the great object of scholastic discipline, I may claim that the facts which I desire briefly to present in this paper, are not entirely unconnected with the educational problem. Whatever the thinking instrument may be, a familiarity with some of its operations, its peculiarities, and its movements, if I may so speak, would greatly facilitate its use, and be of much service to us in our attempts to control and guide it. The study of Thought, of Will, and of Judgment, has been considered, until quite recently, as entirely within the domain of metaphysics, in the region of which, I need hardly say, experimental knowledge is almost unknown. It appears that this is to remain so no longer. The experimentalist, who fears nothing but error and loves nothing but truth, has set his foot on this forbidden ground, and already we find that the incursion has not been made without valuable results, and some important facts have not been only brought to light, but expressed in numbers, so that they may be subjected to the analysis and generalization of the mathematics.

During the past year, I have devoted much of my leisure time to certain investigations concerning the time occupied in some of the simplest mental operations, the result of which I shall endeavor to present under the title, "Rapidity of Thought." That thought is not instantaneous in its operations, is something which even now will be new to many, with whom "as quick as thought" has only been a phrase to signify that no time, or no appreciable time had elapsed. "Like a flash," lost much of its strength, upon the announcement of the immortal discoveries of Romer, Foucault, Wheatstone, and others that light could be made to register its velocity of 190,000, and electricity that of 288,000 miles, in one second of time; and now comes thought, to record its own motion, at a rate immensely slower than either of these. No one is ignorant of the fact, that more complex mental operations require for their performance considerable periods of time, and no one can have failed to notice that in the elaboration of an idea, even of a very simple character, different individuals consume vastly different periods of time. My purpose has been, not to establish what is already so well known, but to ascertain if this difference does not equally well exhibit itself in the simplest performances of the intellect. The energy of thought is more kinetic than potential. We are constantly arriving at conclusions, or forming judgments. A large class of these are common to all, and apparently made with equal facility by all; such as the weather is cold, or it is warm; that body is light, or it is heavy; this is black, or white, or square, or round. Many of these most elementary performances of the mind we see so continually and readily accomplished, that we cease to regard them as requiring either time or effort on the part of the thinker. In the experimental discussion of a few of these, I think we shall see that the contrary is the case.

In conducting a series of experiments upon Thought, it is necessary to avoid, carefully, many sources of error which are at first not apparent. Among

hese, perhaps the most important lie in the construction of the apparatus, or n the method, and in the making of averages from a small number of separate trials. I will, as clearly as possible, indicate my plan and the most valuable results which I have reached.

In any study of this kind, electricity is a most valuable aid. By means of it, any piece of machinery may be put in operation, at any distance, and when the current passes through only a few feet of good conducting wire, as in my experiments, the effect may be considered as precisely simultaneous with the cause. With its assistance, then, we are able to construct instruments which shall measure and record for us exceedingly small portions of time. The time register in my apparatus, was an ordinary paper register for recording Morse's telegraphic signals, and used in a similar manner. I arranged that the band of paper should run steadily and regularly through the instrument, at the rate of about one-and-a-half inches per second. I had, near by, a pendulum beating seconds, and so constructed that, at every beat, its extremity passed through a small globule of mercury, thus producing a momentary completion of the circuit, and of course a small dot on the moving band of paper. Thus, when no other part of the apparatus was in use, the band of paper came from the register with these dots, separated by an interval of one-and-a-half inches, representing one second of time. By a scale, I was able to divide this second. as recorded on the paper, into one thousand parts, and thus could reach, with tolerable accuracy, the measurement of small intervals of time to thousandths of a second. If, then, I wished to measure the time elapsing between the happenings of any two events, I had only to cause each to register iself as a dot upon the moving band of paper, and then to estimate the space included between the marks.

I know of no way of estimating the time consumed in a thought, or, as Maudsley says, in the "performance of an idea," without bringing into play the exercise of the will, and, following that, muscular action. The problem, then, becomes a complex one, and I confess. to my inability, except in one or two cases, to separate them from the veritable thought itself; indeed, most of my experiments thus far have concerned rapidity of the exercise of will. and muscular action following, rather than the more purely mental operation of reason or judgment.

I first desired to determine how quickly our will responds to the challenge made through the medium of one of the senses, and to ascertain if any of the senses were superior in that respect to the others. I began with the sense of sight. The individual upon whom I was experimenting was seated at one end of a table, having in his hand a key, for closing the electric circuit, similar to an ordinary telegraph key. By pushing upon this with his finger, he instantly closed the circuit, and registered a dot upon the moving band of paper, before described. At the other extremity of the table was placed a sort of box, in one side of which was a circular opening about three fourths of an inch in diameter. Behind this I arranged a slide, by means of which a card, of any desired color, or having upon it any figure or figures, could be instantly placed in front of the opening; and the act of so placing it was accompanied, necessarily, by the closing of the electric circuit and the produc-

tion of a dot upon the band of paper. I selected a white card as being the most distinct and most readily seen. The mode of conducting the experiment can be easily understood. The subject is instructed to observe closely the circular opening, and the instant he sees the white card, to respond by pressing his finger momentarily upon the key. Thus we shall have upon the moving paper two dots, separated from each other by an interval of perhaps one-fifth of an inch; the first was made there simultaneously with the actual appearance of the white card behind the opening; the second is the response made after the observer has decided that he saw the card, and had, by the exercise of his will brought about the necessary muscular contraction for closing the circuit. By a comparison of the distance between these two marks upon the paper with the distance expressing one second of time, we are enabled to express, with tolerable accuracy, the interval of time true to the thousandth of a second. I had here, as every-where, to contend with the difficulty of anticipation. The white card was made to appear at irregular intervals, and many unrecorded trials were made, that the subject of the experiment might so control his anxiety to respond quickly, that he should never make a mistake.

My subjects were six young men, varying in age from sixteen to twenty-four years. Of these, the youngest—age sixteen—(by no means the most active, physically, on the contrary, rather slow in his movements,) gave the shortest time. In his case, between his seeing the card, or rather his opportunity for seeing the card, and his response to the impression, there intervened about .142, or almost exactly one-seventh of a second. I discovered also that muscular exertion played a less important part in the operation than I had at first conceived, since one of my subjects, who was a telegraph operator, possessed therefore greater facility in the use of his fingers—or, at least his habits, acquired in manipulating the key, would give him an advantage over others in this respect. In response, however, he was among the slowest, his time being .173 of a second. The experiments were all included between one-seventh and one-fifth of a second, with one exception. In this case, the subject gave, as an average of over fifty trials, on one occasion, .291 of a second, and on another, a week following, only .157. This remarkable difference was accounted for by himself, in the remark, that he felt better during the last series. The result is interesting, as indicating that, even in this exceedingly simple operation—very slight physical and mental perturbations, while otherwise scarcely noticeable—may make a difference of 90 per cent. in the time consumed.

In addition to these trials of the sense of sight, by means of the sudden appearance of a white card, I made some experiments in a darkened room, the signal to which the response was to be made by pressing a key, being a brilliant electric spark, which was also arranged that it appeared simultaneously with the closing of the circuit, and then registered itself as did the card in the preceeding experiment. So limited was the duration of this spark, and so exactly did it necessarily coincide with the closing of the circuit, that it was by far the most accurate and satisfactory test of the sense of sight. The average time in this case, between the making of the spark and the signal in reply, was about one fifth of a second.

Which is the most sensitive, the eye or the ear? is a question not unusual, d the solution of which is not unimportant. If this means to which will a ıponse be made quickest, an object seen or a sound heard, I think we can ıdily answer it. For this purpose, I constructed an apparatus—such that a arp, clear sound, was made to register itself upon the band of paper, and e response to it was made as before. Several hundred trials made with is apparatus show that, undoubtedly, we respond more promptly to a signal hich is heard than to one which is seen. This was true in every case, with two xceptions, and these I am inclined to attribute to some defect in the ex- eriment. The difference in favor of the signal of sound was generally om one-thirtieth to one-fortieth of a second, an amount by no means ifling in relation to the total duration of the whole performance. I need not dd that a knowledge of this fact may be of some practical value, or suggest ıat it may be either the cause or the result of the almost universal method f signaling by an appeal to the ear, rather than the eye.

Of the remaining of the five senses, that of feeling is the only one, as far s we know, which is affected with any degree of promptness, upon bringing ɔont the necessary conditions for the production of the sensation. I am ertain no one who has ever considered this subject will be surprised to know ıat it proves itself to be more prompt and rapid than sight or hearing. To ıvestigate touch, I constructed an instrument which I could hold in my hand, ıd with which I could administer a light blow upon the hand, or head, or ce of my subject. The part of the instrument which came in contact with e skin, was one face of a block of wood, having a surface of about one ıuare inch, and covered with coarse sand-paper, in order that the effect of e touch might be as immediate as possible. When a blow was struck with is instrument, the block of wood, being attached to a spring, was pressed ıckward a small fraction of an inch, and thus the electric circuit closed, ıd the time recorded. The subject must, of couse, in this experiment, be evented from, in any way, anticipating the blows, which must be delivered irregular intervals. I made two sets of experiments, one in which the blows ere made upon the back of the hand and another in which they were made upon e center of the forehead. As I anticipated, there was a noticeable difference— e response being made in less time after a blow upon the forehead than after ıe upon the hand. In the former case, the time between the blow and the re- ɔonse was from one-tenth to one-twelfth of a second, and the latter would verage about one-eighth of a second. Now this difference, say one-fiftieth f a second, is most probably due to the excess of the time required for the ransmission of the sensation from the hand to the brain over that from its ransmission from the forehead to the brain. Assuming the hand to be two- ınd a-half feet further from the brain than the forehead, we obtain from these xperiments a result of one hundred and twenty-five feet per second for the velocity of sensation. This accords tolerably well with the latest results ob tained by the best experimentalists in this direction, by working in an entirely different way, and with a much more delicate and reliable apparatus.

The "velocity of sensation" astonishes, on account of its extreme slowness. Even sound, which we regard as sluggish, and which we can almost feel to

move, travels about ten times as rapidly. From these simple experiments upon the sense of sight, hearing and touch, we learn at least how to rank them. Touch seems to be most intimately related to the brain. If three impressions were made, simultaneously, one upon the sense of feeling, another upon the sense of hearing, and the third upon the sense of sight, we should first feel, then hear, then see.

In the simple perception of an object the mental labor performed is very slight. The mind recognizes the presence of the object, and, in the cases above mentioned, wills to respond by a muscular contraction. I have attempted to take a step in advance of this, and study, as before stated, the relation of time to what seemed more purely an act of cerebration. Referring again to the apparatus, in which a card was displayed at a small circular opening, I arranged so that I could display at will either a white or red card. My subject being provided in this case with two keys for closing the circuit, one for the right and one for the left hand, is instructed to close with the right hand upon the appearance of the white card, and with the left when he sees the red card. In conducting this experiment great care must be taken to prevent guessing on the part of the subject. He will be continually deciding in his own mind that the red card will appear next, or that the white card must now be shown, and thus commit the blunder of closing with the wrong hand.

In all of my experiments I kept no record whatever of the trials, until, by long practice, the individual was able to oblige himself to wait until the color actually appears, and then register correctly; and I believe, in the results which I have preserved, there was not a single error of this kind. In these results we have an expression for the time consumed in the act of making a simple judgment. The mental operation is perhaps nearly as follows: first, a perception, we see a color, we decide that it is red or white; then an act of the will, followed by the muscular contraction necessary to make the register. I am not certain but in the mind there is a double judgment, first as to the color of the card, and second as to the register being made by the right or the left hand. A considerable personal equation was, of course, found in these results, none were below $\frac{1}{5}$ of a second and some .44 seconds. Now, having previously determined in each case the duration of the perception, the exercise of the will and the muscular contraction, if this be subtracted from the total, the remainder will express, as nearly as may be, the actual time occupied by the mind in deciding whether the card is red or white. This "time for simple judgment" between two colors in my cases, varies from .148 to .229 of a second; that is, from a little more than $\frac{1}{7}$ to considerably more than $\frac{1}{4}$ of a second. It thus appears that one man may decide between two colors one-twelfth of a second quicker than another. Of course, should two colors less easily distinguished than red and white be selected, the results would vary greatly from these. Taking two white cards I drew in black, a circle upon one and a triangle upon the other. I selected these as two figures which differ as much in form as possible. The cards were presented at the circular opening in the same manner as the colors, and the subject in this case was to exercise his judgment of form by registering with one hand the circle, and with the other the triangle. As was anticipated in every case more time was required to distinguish between a cir-

cle and a triangle than between a red card and a white one. Persons who consumed from one-seventh to one-sixth of a second in the actual judgment of color, required from one-sixth to one-fifth in that of form. I also made a series of trials in a similar manner, by the production of two sounds of a different pitch, my subject deciding when the sound was high and when low, in the manner before indicated. Here the effect of the training of the ear was made strikingly manifest. I made the experiment upon one who was a fine musician, and upon another who confessed that he had not the slightest taste or knowledge in that direction. The results need not be indicated. Another trial, which will be of interest to musicians, proved that one could more readily distinguish any tone as C from any tone as E, than the same tone from its octave —a fact frequently suspected, but never before, that I know of, proved.

With this same apparatus, I undertook to study the much talked of question of the number of objects which the mind of man can embrace by a single act of attention; or, as it is sometimes expressed, but loosely, of how many things can we think of at one time. I was afterward induced to change my method of experiment for one originally suggested, I believe, by Sir William Hamilton, and afterward improved and corrected by W. Stanley Jevous, in a very interesting series of trials, the results of which are given in the columns of Nature for February 6th, 1871. This method is so simple and ingenious, and so attainable by every one, that I must describe it.

Take the lid of a circular box three or four inches in diameter, see that it is lined with white paper, and trim the edges down until they stand one-third or one fourth of an inch in height. Place it on a table or stand, covered with black cloth, and procure a handful of black beans. Having your subject seated in front of the table with his eyes fixed upon the box, toss the beans in the air so that some of them will fall in the white box, and instruct him to cry loud the number in the box, instantly after they have fallen—that is, the number must be estimated at a single glance, and never actually counted. Keep a record of the number he gives, and the number of beans fallen in the box by actual count, and repeat the experiment until many trials have been made. Sir William Hamilton gives six as the number of objects which the mind can thus instantly embrace. Proceeding in the manner indicated, I found results agreeing closely with those given in the article previously referred to, and which go to show that four is the limit. I always found that when less than five beans had actually fallen within the edge of the box, they were estimated correctly. In many trials there was not a single exception to this. However, when a number greater than four were present, they were sometimes correctly estimated and sometimes not—there being a tendency to overestimate small numbers and to underestimate large ones.

In solving this problem, our daily experience may be of some value. A friend who performs with great skill upon a musical instrument, informs me that in playing new music he will frequently at a single glance upon the printed pages, embrace as many as ten notes which he will immediately play correctly. There seems a probability, however, in this case, as in many others, that the objects may be grouped by twos or by threes—a practice which is quite common, as, in reading from a book, we do not attend to each individual letter,

but attend to them as grouped in words. I have been informed by a distin guished African traveler and explorer, that among the most ignorant an savage races, the number four was at the limit of their comprehension. Al could count and compare as far as four, but after that everything was to ther "a great many." It has been my intention throughout this paper, to give sim ply the plan and results of my own experiments without drawing any conclu sions therefrom.

It seems appropriate to give briefly, in conclusion, the results obtained b other investigators in the same direction. The time required for the transmis sion of a motor impulse along the nerves of a frog, has been pretty definitel settled at one second for twenty-eight metres. Numerous attempts at measur ing the velocity of the transmission of motor impulses in a living man have been made, and the results have by no means agreed. Helmholtz decided in his first series of experiments, that this velocity in man is 33 metres per sec ond, but Place has obtained a result as high as 53 metres per second, and if I mistake not in a recent series of trials, Helmholtz has discovered that his previous result was too low. Concerning the time required for mental pro cesses, such as I have heretofore described, Fizeau, Donders, and others, have studied with great care and complete instrumental aid. Some of the results have seemed to show that the velocity of sensation is greater than that of motor impulse, but the matter is certainly not definitely settled as yet. Fizeau has attempted to analyze some of the simpler operations, and declares that the brain consumes one-tenth of a second in transmitting an order to the muscles, and the muscles one-hundredth of a second in getting into motion. In this country, Dr. Holmes has experimented, as he remarks, with an apparatus more expensive than had ever before been used, and yet within the reach and mean of everybody. His plan is ingenious, and easily used by any who may attac any degree of interest or importance to the subject. It consists only in selec ing several persons, ten is a convenient number, and having them join hand to form a circle. Any convenient signal, as to the pressure of the hand, i sent round this ring several times as ten, and the time in seconds estimated a carefully as may be by means of a good watch. The number of seconds divide by the number of individuals, and that by the number of times round, will give c course the time occupied by the passage of the impulse through the nerve and brain of each individual. This quotient can by practice be reduced t about one-tenth of a second. The experiment admits of much variation as wil readily occur to those interested. Young and old may be compared, and als the sexes, by making two circles, each entirely of one class.

Thus it appears that an entering wedge has been made in the great problen of the mysterious operation of thought, which only needs to be driven hom that it may reveal to us stores of facts, curious and of possible utility. W have pretty certainly settled the minimum time necessary to a perception an the performance of an idea. It becomes a simple problem, then, to calculat how many perceptions and ideas it is possible for a man to have in his allotte lifetime of three score and ten, and what a blow for those who question th great fertility of the human mind is the result, approximating to twenty-fiv billions! But many of us are content to think the same thing over many mil

lions of times; and, as Holmes remarks, with some few very fashionable people, a very limited amount of thinking material may correspond to a very full sense of the organs of sense and a good development of the muscular system.

The subject, however, and especially to members of our profession, is one deserving of sober consideration. There is a growing disposition among thinkers to regard the mind as an instrument of thought, and any contribution, however feeble, toward the analysis of its operations, can not be without some value; and the results of these and similar investigations may yet find a place in the theory of a true educational system.

REMARKS ON MR. MENDENHALL'S PAPER.

WM. MITCHELL, of Columbus: I was very much gratified in having the opportunity of hearing the paper upon Rapidity of Thought, which has just been read in our hearing, and I am also able to bear personal testimony to the industry, carefulness, and ingenuity that this paper has cost its author. I believe I express the feeling of a great many present, and of all true educators in the State, when I say that I am glad that we have in our number those who are striking out in the direction of original investigations in matters of science. There are teachers in our State, who, while they faithfully and efficiently discharge all the duties required of them as instructors, still find time and have a disposition to make such investigations. I believe that it was one of the old Romans, who said he was a man, and nothing which concerned man, was foreign to him. Our field is education, and it involves all that contributes to progress, both in pedagogics and in physics. Considering this paper no ordinary one, and knowing what it has cost the author, I move that a vote of thanks of this Association be tendered Mr. Mendenhall. I do so because I think it the duty of the Association to encourage every effort made in this direction, by this and kindred papers that may come before it in the future.

E. T. TAPPAN: I desire to say that I have listened to this paper with a great deal of interest and pleasure. I have not for a long time read or heard read a paper which appeared to be more thoroughly and strictly scientific. I hope that the gentleman may pursue these investigations further. I wish very much that he would in the future give us more upon the rapidity of thought proper, eliminating all that pertains to the velocity of the nervous fluid either to or from the brain; and that he would make his experiments upon a much greater variety of persons. I suspect from what was said, that these experiments were generally made on persons of more than average intelligence, and, perhaps, on persons who were pretty much of one class of mind. The difference which he noticed in the case of the telegraphic operator was a fact of great interest. Now if the gentleman will select persons that appear to be slow in particular operations, and test them in this way, and compare them as a class with those that are quick, the results would probably be more satisfactory. My wish is simply to suggest a course of experiments, which this paper shows its author to be well qualified to carry out.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION. *

BY GEORGE S. ORMSBY, XENIA, O.

Universal education, physical, intellectual and moral, is the basis of republican government. Good morals, united with general intelligence, furnished the chief corner-stone on which the superstructure is reared.

A despotism may build its throne and rest its crown on the broken spirits of crushed humanity. It may regard man as an unthinking machine, as mere bulwarks and breastworks of stone, the less imperishable the better. It may regard all its citizens as it does the battalions of its armies, living, moving walls of defense and offense, whose only use is to surround and support the throne of the despot, and contribute to its glory and power. In such a state, the liberties of the citizens destroyed, a despotism may be prosperous, the throne of the despot may stand secure, while the crown passes down on the heads of generations of men. But not so in a Republican government. Here each man is a sovereign, and the meanest, the most depraved and ignorant in the state is equal in power to the wisest and the best.

We scarcely comprehend the magnitude, and the responsibility of the ballot. Horace Mann has said, "By the votes of a few wicked men, or even of one wicked man, honorable men may be hurled from office, and miscreants elected to fill their places; useful offices abolished, and sinecures created; the public wealth, which has supported industry, squandered upon mercenaries; enterprises crippled, the hammer falling from every hand, the wheel stopping in every mill, the sail dropping to the mast on every sea, and thus capital, which had been honestly and laboriously accumulated, turned into dross. In fine, the whole policy of the government may be reversed, and the social condition of millions changed, to gratify one man's grudge, or prejudice, or revenge."

We have seen a clear illustration of this in the great impeachment trial of Andrew Johnson. It is not the proper place here to speak of the merits of that trial, but one single vote gave character to the history of the nation in all time to come, and that single vote, different from what it was, would have changed the history of the nation, so that the records that will now be made and those that would have been made, could they both be presented to the student of history, a hundred years hence, would appear like the histories of two different nations.

When we remember that at every gubernational election in the State of Ohio, nearly 20,000 ballots may be cast by persons who can not read their and that, at the homes of these illiterate sovereigns, there are more than 8,000 mothers who are leading their children in the same paths of ignorance and vice; when we remember that, at every Presidential election, more than 500,000 ballots of a similar kind may be deposited, and, what is worse, when we consider that all these thousands may be controlled by a single designing wicked man; and, added to all this, when we remember that during several of

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the last decades, illiteracy in the United States, of native born citizens, has been steadily on the increase, notwithstanding all our accumulating educational facilities; that in the State of Pennsylvania, more than 75,000 are growing up outside the influence of schools; that in the city of San Francisco, on the west, whose golden gate opens toward the Orient, through which every incoming wave flows a tide of heathenish customs, to mingle with and modify he institutions of our own land, 3,000 children are in the streets, leading idle nd dissolute lives; that in the city of Philadelphia, nearly 20,000 children re in a similar condition; and that in New York, on the east, the very poitical and commercial heart of the nation, which, with every mighty pulsation, ends streams of influence through the national arteries, to the farthest extremity, bearing to every part health and vigor, or poison and death; that, in his city, 40,000, perhaps nearly 60,000, children are rocked in the cradle of gnorance, and thoroughly disciplined in the schools of vice and crime; when e go into all the land, and remember that, in every city, town and hamlet, at in all the cities represented in this Convention, and in all other cities of e country, we find this same representative character, whose name is legion—his boy without father or mother, beginning of years or ending of days; when e remember that, in all the nation, more than three millions of persons are tterly ignorant of their own highest interests, and yet we are equal in power the wisest and best, and that these millions, in many cases, will sell themlves to the highest bidder, among political brokers and gamblers, there is st cause for the apprehension on the part of all patriots, and for the clamation of the old prophesy, "My people are destroyed for the want of owledge," and we may justly fear for the safety of the ark which contains r liberties and our brightest hopes.

These are great facts, not idle theories; arithmetical facts, which have no nbiguous or double meaning, and the tendency and result of them are as rtain as the facts themselves. They are spread over the geographical map our country; like dark spots on the surface of the sun. A mortal disease, ey are preying upon the vitals of the nation; a cancer, whose roots are riking at the very heart.

And now the question occurs, who shall attempt to eradicate this cancer, d how shall it be done? "Is there no balm in Gilead; is there no physician ere? Why, then, is not the health of the daughter of my people recovered?" Who is this physician, and what is the balm? We have been taught by the sults of the last twenty years, that all the permanent improvements in our blic school system must emanate from the teacher himself. He is, from his ry vocation, a reformer. He must be an agitator. He must give character public manners and morals, and must mould public sentiment, and thus effect nd control legislation, in matters intimately connected with his own profession. Repulsed in the first charge, or in the second, or even in the seventh, he may withdraw his forces, drill under the tent in the camp, and then ake the field again and strike with new vigor.

If agencies are to be set on foot, by means of which every child in the State shall not only have the opportunities of an education, but shall actually receive it, the plan must originate mainly in the teachers themselves, and by

them it must be pressed until the result is secured. The teacher then is physician. What is the *balm?*

No learned diagnosis is necessary to determine the nature of the dise It is ignorance, and its consequents, vice and crime. What means shal adopted to remove the disease, and thus produce a cure?

Shall we resort to a general system of compulsory education? In ans ing this question, two other questions occur. First, is it right; second, i expedient? As to the first question, I answer, it is right. It is right to every child in the State a common school education who desires it. right to compel every child in the State to receive a common school educat who does not desire it, and it is right to compel every parent in the State, is so wicked as to withhold education from his child, either to educate l himself, or to surrender him to the State to be educated. These proposit are not inconsistent with our democratic theories of government.

It is right for the State to compel education, on the ground that the gov ment has a right to protect itself. Self-preservation is a divine law writte the hand of God on the human soul. It can not be alienated, nor can i transferred or surrendered without a just equivalent. This same la deeply engraved on the fore-front of every nation that has a right to It was thoroughly asserted in the first dark days of the late rebellion, politicians in high places, from whose vertibral columns every jot and titt sustaining substance had departed, every bone in whose bodies had beco bending, pliable cartilege, sat in their rickety official chairs, hugging th lusive phantom of inability, until the guns arrived at Fort Sumpter, bat down her walls, and sent such an earthquake shock through all the land, the scales fell from the eyes of the people, and permitted them to discern clearer vision, that the nation had a right to save its own life, and to whatever means were necessary to this end. So, when ignorance, with its comitants, vice and crime, would strike its envenomed tooth into the he the nation, it may take appropriate means to slay the reptile, and thu serve and invigorate its own life, and this it may do though it seems some to entrench upon the rights of the citizen.

There is to-day, in the Ohio Penitentiary, a young man who has not twenty-one summers, sentenced there for a period of eighteen years another cell, the father of this young man is confined, incarcerated for a p of one year, for the sole offense of harboring this wayward son. Now, ha State a right to punish a man for exercising those affections which Goc planted in his breast—which you, and I, and all of us, would be gr tempted to do? And has it not the right to restrict the liberty of a child perhaps deprive the parent of his service, for a greater crime, a cri thousand times more deleterious in its influences? Had the State take boy when he began his truancy from the schools, under my supervision tc she might have returned him to his father, an upright man and a t citizen.

I argue, further, the right of the State to compel education, on the gr that each child in the commonwealth has a right to be educated. It is o the fundamental doctrines of the Declaration of Independence, the pursu

happiness—one of the inalienable rights of man, which neither parent, nor guardian, nor government can destroy or abridge, without a great crime.

The parent may not have adequate means to feed, clothe and educate the child. He will not then be responsible for the non-performance of impossibilities. But when, for his own convenience, for the clothing or the feeding of himself, or the rendering of his own life more comfortable, or even the saving of it, he keeps his child in ignorance, he commits a crime against the State, and the child may appeal to the State for the assertion of its rights, and without such appeal, the State may interfere on its own behalf to secure them.

If the right is conceded, the question still occurs: Is it expedient?

According to facts presented by some of our ablest writers, the almost universal education and intelligence of the German people is not due so much to their compulsory law, as to the great love of learning, deep in the German heart. We are informed that compulsory education in Prussia was regarded as a religious duty, long before it became a law of the State. It was adopted in the interests of religion, and commanded as other religious duties would be; and this duty was enforced, not by the sanctions of the law, but by the sentiments of the people, the power behind the law, and greater than the law itself. And it has been affirmed by one who has had abundant opportunities to know, Rev. Mr. Pattison, of England, that "The schooling in Prussia is compulsory, only in name." "The school," says he, "has taken so deep a root in the habits of the German people, that were the laws repealed to-morrow, no one doubts that the schools would continue as full as they are now." And this care for education, be it remembered, was not generated in the heart of the German people by the law, but by the nature and circumstances of things, existing long before its enactment. The law was simply the exponent of the German mind, and the habits of German thought, merely the announcement of what they had done, and what they would do, even without it, and our own observation bears testimony that this is the spirit of the German people in this country. A law is scarcely needed in this country to restrain a truant German boy, or compel a German father to educate his son. We are told, further, in corroboration of these views, that in several French cantons in Switzerland, where education has long been compulsory, that the law is a dead letter—compulsory only in name; that the condition of primary education is more prosperous, and that the law has added nothing to its prosperity. It is further stated, that in Holland every adult citizen can read and write; that in Frankfort the children are as regular in their attendance at school as in any other city in Germany, and yet neither Holland nor Frankfort has a compulsory law.

The Prussian system of education has long been regarded as an excellent model for other nations to copy, and educators in this, and in other countries, have endeavored to draw from it all good materials for the remodeling and construction of their own system, in their respective countries, and yet the wisest, who have had the most abundant opportunities to understand thoroughly the wants of their own systems, and the workings of the Prussian, have not

thought it best to adopt this feature. It was pressed upon Holland and rejected. It was also rejected in England.

From these facts, thus briefly stated, we may justly infer that, when the sentiment of the people is right on the subject, there is no need of a general compulsory law; and, from observation in other matters, which have been the subjects of legislation, from the extreme democratic proclivities of our people, and the very delicacy of the question itself, we may properly conclude that when the sentiment is not right, the experiment might be followed by disastrous consequences.

Nevertheless, the right of the State and its imperative duty to adopt means which will, in the shortest time, and with the least political and social friction, accomplish this most desirable result, and banish illiteracy from the land, should be most positively asserted and enforced.

A wise and skillful General will not attempt to carry a fortified position by storm, when by careful delays, by sure and gradual approaches, the capturing of outposts first, he can accomplish the result with less sacrifice of life and treasure.

A general compulsory law would be an attempt to carry this position by storm. A practical system that would effect first the most salient points; that would attack the youthful criminal first—the truant, the idler, the homeless, parentless, friendless, the juvenile vagrant, taking his first lessons in the alphabet of crime—this would be an attack upon the outposts, and it would ultimately compel a surrender.

Truant laws have been enacted in several States of our Union, some of which stand to-day as dead letters on the statute books, while others have produced good results. New York passed a law in 1853, to provide for the care and instruction of idle and truant children; and 40,000 idle and truant children, uncared for and uninstructed, in her one great city, tell with more emphasis than language can express, that this law has not been enforced.

Massachusetts has had a truant law for several years, and its provisions have been enforced to such an extent as to produce good results. Truant schools have been established, private and local reformatories organized, truant agents appointed under State authority, whose entire work is to look after the interests of these children, and thousands have been rescued from vagrant and dissolute lives, and brought into these schools, and thence transferred to families, where they are recipients of all the refining influences of home.

It was my intention to examine the statistics of crime, to approximate toward the amount that could be traced directly, or indirectly, to the irregularities of childhood, and to determine its cost, for the purpose of demonstrating the proposition, that the State can afford to establish in each populous county or at least in every Congressional district, a truant school, where not only the common branches of an English education should be taught, but where the children might learn the arts of industry, and be taught many of the useful mechanical trades.

The examination I have not been able to make. Any one can do so, who can have access to the records of his own county, or to the report of the Sec

retary of State. The result would doubtless illustrate the truth of the proposition that I have announced.

Hon. A. E. Rankin, late Secretary of the Board of Education of the State of Vermont, affirms that it costs New York four times as much to support her criminal courts, as to educate her children. This may be an exaggeration, but I presume the statement is not made entirely at random. But if we shall take the amount that is actually expended in this way, and then add to this amount the annual cost of supporting the poor, whose poverty has been caused in a great measure by the idle habits of youth, an immense sum would be presented for our contemplation. Then, if we shall establish a truant school in each Congressional district, or as many as necessity should demand, with all the industrial appliances indicated above, and then take such a sum of money as is now expended for the detection and punishment of crime and for the support of the poor, and apply it to the proper support and education of these children, we shall find that, in twenty years, crime has diminished seventy-five per cent. its cost in the same ratio, the morals and manners of the citizens improved, and thousands of children, now men, who, under other circumstances, would have been an expense to the State, would be pouring streams of wealth into the public treasury from the result of honest industry. To this add the value of property destroyed by crime, and increase this sum by the cash value of honest labor that might have been performed by these incarcerated criminals, which is a part of the wealth of the State withdrawn.

But there is a feature of American character, so intimately connected with education, and with this subject now under consideration, that it needs to be discussed here. I refer to the extreme democracy of the American people, which manifests itself so clearly in the insubordination of American youth.

In this respect, American children and Prussian children can not be put into the same class. In Prussia, under a monarchical government, all the political and social institutions teach subordination in rank. Rank and superiority are everywhere recognized. The man of inferior rank pays deference to him of superior rank, and the boy regards the teacher as a man who must be obeyed, and when this obedience is not rendered, physical means are at hand to secure it, and the right or the propriety of the use of such means is not questioned. In our own country, this feeling of subordination in rank has little or no existence in the minds of multitudes of our democratic children; they recognize no allegiance to parent, teacher, or government, nor do they admit any right of the teacher to inflict physical penalties. A great revolution has been going on in the minds of the American people, during the last ten years, on the subject of corporal punishment, and, whether we will, or not, the shadow on the dial-plate will not move backward. Public sentiment is settling down on the principle, that the rod shall not be used. Hon. S. S. Randall, Superintendent of the schools of the city of New York, in his report, made December 31, 1869, says: I cordially congratulate the Board on the entire abolition of *corporal* punishment, and respectfully recommend the enactment of suitable provisions for the *suspension* or *expulsion* of incorrigibly vicious or contumacious pupils, and their exclusion from any public school except on

satifactory assurance of future good behavior." This opinion of Mr. Randall is but the voice of the people. The rod is even now banished from the school-room, and, whether we like it or not, it is a state of things which must be accepted as true. Suspension and expulsion must take its place, and this rule of expulsion prevails in nearly all our public schools, even where the rod is freely used. This state of things, in our own country, renders it impossible to establish such a system of compulsory education as now exists in Europe. Our work practically is—and I appeal to the experience of many who hear me—not to compel bad children to come into the school, but to force the incorrigibly vicious out of school.

In adopting a system of compulsory education in our own country, this state of facts must be taken into consideration. Our schools must be graded, not only according to the intellectual standing of the pupil, but according to his moral standing and deportment, also. Obedience is God's law. It is better than sacrifice. The nation demands it. It can not live without it. Rebellion is like the sin of witchcraft. It can not be tolerated, and rebellious children must be forced out of the ordinary school, from among those who render a willing obedience to law, and into some school where obedience can and will be enforced, by whatever means are necessary to accomplish this result.

I would, then, establish truant schools in every considerable town, where the number of such children require it, appoint instructors in them who combine intellect, heart and muscle, so that moral as well as physical appliances might be used to secure order and discipline. Into these schools I would place all the truant children of the town—the idle, the vicious, the vagrant—who could not be prevailed upon to deport themselves properly in the ordinary public schools; also those who, for good reasons, should be expelled from the public schools.

I would, then, establish truant schools, such as I have indicated above, in every Congressional district (a less number might be sufficient), to which children may be sent who have no homes or means of support; and others also, who need to be taken from parents who exert an improper influence over them, or interfere with their proper government at the truant school at home. And all parents who are able to pay for the support of their children in these schools, should be required to do so, at least in part, and the remainder should be supported at the public expense.

It is believed that a compulsory system of this kind, a general outline only of which is here given, would be approved by the public sentiment of the country; that it would, in the end, prove to be economical and almost self-supporting; that it would transform the vagrant child into the useful citizen, drive ignorance from the land, and danger from the State.

DISCUSSION OF MR. ORMSBY'S PAPER.

WARREN HIGLEY, of Cleveland: This subject is one that interests us all. It has interested educators in times past, and is to-day so before the people of our country that we can not well pass over it without somewhat determining in our minds the

ssibility of instituting a compulsory system of education. The admirable address o which we have listened, has taken up the points, and discussed them with a great eal of power, every point being established by authority of the highest character. The records have been searched, reliable statistics have been produced, proving, irst, the dangers to which we are exposed through the influence of the prevailing ignorance; secondly, the right of the State to establish and enforce a system of education, which shall banish from our land these dangers arising from ignorance; and, hirdly, a very important point was discussed, the right of the child to an education rhich shall prepare it for citizenship, and rescue it from ruin, and from a life which hall eat out the prosperity of the country. The dangers to which we are exposed, rom the uneducated children of the land, are very great. I have a few statistics n regard to the influence of education upon the morals of the country. The statistics of the prison at Auburn, New York, for the year 1866, show that there were 753 persons in the prison for that year, and that of these there were but four who ad been High School pupils, and but seven were classically educated. There were 104 out of the 753, or about one-seventh of the whole number, who could neither read nor write, and the remainder were able simply to read and write. What is true in regard to the statistics of the Auburn Prison, at this time, is true generally of the prisons throughout the country, although, at the time these statistics were taken, the condition of the prisoners at Auburn was better than it had been formerly, owing to the influence of the war.

S. C. Holley, who was Clerk of the Metropolitan Police Board of New York City, n 1866, reports that, in that year, the loss from felonies alone, in the city, was 9,000,000, and it is estimated that the loss in the rest of the State was $4,953,000, making a total loss to the State of $13,953,000.

This loss is largely the result of the want of education of those who constitute his criminal class. A compulsory system of education would bring into the schools hose who would not otherwise come, and would thus very largely save this loss, rhich is eating out our substance. The right of the State to establish and execute compulsory system of education, has been established beyond question. People re paying money for the education of youth, in order that their property may be nore secure, and that their interests may be protected. If they pay this money, nd the results for which they pay it are not secured, then they have a just right to omplain of taxation imposed for the education of the young. Our free schools, I ake it, are not instituted so much for the education of those who are able to attain by means of private schools, as for the purpose of giving an education to those ho ought to have it; and since that very class who most need education for the protion of society and the State, refuse to receive it, when offered, a compulsory stem of education seems to be necessary, in order to bring free education to the ght results.

There are very many difficulties in the way of enforcing a system of compulsory ucation, and yet, it seems to me, that there are means by which this system may enforced. The paper has given us the recommendation that we should commence the outposts; that a general law of compulsory education might be destructive the ends for which such a law might be instituted. No doubt this position is ll taken. The system may be begun by establishing schools, into which we may ing vagrant children, and by instituting such other means as will secure the atdance of these vagrant children—those who now refuse to receive the benefit of e schools. There are so many objections, that it might be difficult to get anying that shall be general in its character, and at the same time efficient. There e so many parents who wish to educate their children in private and sectarian hools, that in order to have a general law to apply to them all, the greatest care

must be exercised. It seems to me that, as an aid in this direction, a system of e
aminations could be instituted throughout the State, for pupils in private as well
public schools. Boards of examiners might be appointed, from which all teache
shall receive a certificate of qualifications, before they shall be allowed to tea
even a private school. This would remove one difficulty. The execution of the la
would, in its natural course, be left to the School Commissioner, who could obtai
reports from the various districts of all the children who do not attend schoo
Boards should be authorized by this law to employ police officers, appointed fo
that purpose, to bring those pupils into the schools who would not otherwise com
Thus, I believe, the ends desired in this matter could be secured to such an exten
as very largely to obviate the difficulty which now prevails in regard to this genera
system of education. I know that every Superintendent of education in our citie
and towns would be most gratified to have the support of the State, to secure th
general attendance of all children within their districts. Personal interest woul
urge them to this, and the sentiment of a large majority of the people would, I am
sure, so support them, that they would have no difficulty whatever in carrying ou
this system.

Mr. President, I have occupied more time than I intended. I wish simply t
offer a resolution, in conclusion, to be submitted to the proper Committee:

Resolved, That this Association recommend to the Legislature of the State such
provision in the school law as shall best secure a common-school education to al
the children in the State.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

The committee to whom Mr. Higley's resolution was referred, reported the fo
lowing:

Resolved, That we believe an efficient truant law, with a system of juvenile r
formatory schools, would be an important means of securing a more general educa
tion of the youth of the State and a consequent decrease of vice and crime, and
earnestly commend this subject to the consideration of our people.

Mr. Hancock: I agree with the resolution heartily as far as it goes, but, P
President, I have enlisted "for the war" in favor of a system of compulsory edu
tion, and I shall never be satisfied to go no farther than is proposed in this resoluti
I am very far from thinking that the voluntary system of American instruction
failure, but I doubt whether, in the nature of things, it can ever be a complete s
cess, reaching that class of youth that are continuously recruiting the army of cr
inals. Every day as I go to my office or from it, I see boys, fourteen or fifteen ye
of age, going out to the work-house, sentenced for six months to six years, to
associated with the vilest of criminals of every age, and I ask myself if this is
best use to which such humanity can be put. My appeal is not for the adults
speak for the children. I can conceive of no such power in the hands of the par
as will deny the child that education which is far more important for him than
daily food he requires. I can conceive of no right by which a parent, simply
cause he is a free American, can deprive his child of mental culture, and through
caprice destroy the mind and the very soul of his offspring. I do not agree with
opinion lately expressed by a distinguished lecturer in Cincinnati, respecting
formation of a State. The State is but an enlargement of the family, and is es
lished by God himself. The patriarchal was the simplest form of government,
when these great families so increased that they had thousands of interests in c
mon, it became necessary that they should become a community with a broader
more enlightened government than that of the ordinary family. In order that
relations existing among all the members of this community might be harmoni

certain regulations had to be established and accepted by every member. As the government of a family would not be held guiltless if it did not provide for the proper instruction of the children, so the responsibility of providing the means of instruction for all its members, rests upon the State. The interests of the State are also more varied than the interests of a family, and when the interests of the family, or its supposed interests or caprices, conflict with the interests of the State, the right of the State is paramount, since its existence is more important than the existence of any one family or individual. Thus the State has right to take a child from an incompetent and vicious family, as the child belongs more to the State than it does to the family.

Again, it is not a knowledge of geography or arithmetic, or of any other branch of study, that makes a good American citizen. It is the character, the moral status of the man, that makes him a good American citizen, and the State is bound to look to it that every individual within the compass of its power has such an education as this. I conceive this to be a system of education commensurate with the powers and grandeur of a great and free Republic. (Applause.)

MR. WATKINS: There is an idea underlying the whole school system. It is fundamental and necessary. The State can not indulge in idle sentimentalism; it cares nothing for the pyrotechnics of declamation; but the State does care for self-preservation, and the preservation of society by means of general enlightenment and culture. This is the very purpose for which this school system exists, and if the school system fails in this purpose, it fails in the very thing for which it was created. Now, Mr. Chairman, if there are five thousand families in the city of Sandusky, and if of these there are fifty families that do not avail themselves of the great privileges of this school system—if there are fishers along the shore, mariners, or artisans of any kind, keeping their children out of the school, denying them its privileges, and raising them in degradation for crime, then, Mr. President, in spite of the demonstration of the excellence of these schools which we have had here, it must be considered, when we come down to the fair practical work for which they exist, that the schools of Sandusky fail, not entirely but greatly, to answer the end for which they exist. There would be no danger of stealing or of robbery from those children whose parents care for their education, and if the schools only reach these and do nothing for those for whose sake they exist, they greatly fail. Now, Mr. Chairman, if we are to advocate a compulsory education, we will have to make this point very clear, and, to persuade the people, we will have to show that we do not want to compel those who now educate their children, to send them to school. The law does not exist for the just man, but for the lawless. We wish to compel some people to do that for their children, which all respectable people would do without any compulsion. The law is not for that man who sends his child to school one hundred and ninety-five days in the year and perhaps for eight or nine years continuously, but it is to take hold of that other man who will otherwise raise his children in vice and ignorance, compelling him to do that which others do of their own accord.

E. E. WHITE: I was very much pleased with the paper read this morning. The positions taken were, on the whole, sound, and I believe that they form a good basis for action. I would like to follow the lead of my friend from Cincinnati, who is a safe leader, but I find myself in doubt respecting the feasibility of adopting a compulsory system of school attendance, and I wish to state some of these doubts as plainly as possible.

I am heartily with all who believe it to be both the right and the duty of the State to secure the education of every child born into its citizenship. On this point we have no disagreement, but is it best to attempt to accomplish this result by a general compulsory system?

MR. HANCOCK: I would not take the post by assault, but by a regular siege.

MR. WHITE: There are two questions which need to be carefully considered. To what extent is the American system of voluntary school attendance failing to reach the great body of the people—how great is the evil to be remedied? Will a compulsory system be a practical and efficient remedy? There is, I think, a great error in the public mind respecting the actual number of children not reached by our schools. In determining the number of unschooled children, it is a very common mistake to subtract the number of pupils enrolled in a given year from the number of school age. I have met this blunder in school reports and in State Associations. In the Teachers' Association of a neighboring State, I once heard Ohio charged with some 150,000 children who never enter our school-rooms. The fact is that our school statistics do not show anything on this point. They do not tell us whether one or twenty per cent. of the youth of the State are growing up in ignorance, and all conclusions based upon them are simply mischievous. If I had time I would like to analyze these statistics to show the correctness of this position. I will give an illustration.

I have endeavored to ascertain what per cent. of the youth of Prussia attend school each year. The official tables for the year 1849 show that the number of children in Prussia between six and fourteen years of age, was 3,223,362, and the total number of pupils enrolled in all the schools, was 2,605,408, leaving 617,954 children between six and fourteen, who were not in school that year. It certainly would be a great mistake to conclude that these six hundred thousand absentees in a given year are growing up in ignorance, for we know that every child in Prussia (speaking very accurately) attends school more or less before he is fourteen years of age. This shows that these statistics do not give the number of youth who grow up unschooled. We know that some children in Ohio never attend school, for we have a personal knowledge of the fact, but we do not know the number of such youth. It is certainly much less than even 50,000.

I have endeavored to collect statistics by means of which the school attendance under the compulsory systems of Europe can be compared with the attendance in the older Northern States of this country where the voluntary system has had most time to work out its results. Is the compulsory system of Prussia bringing into the schools each year a larger proportion of its youth than the voluntary system of Ohio? What say you? The figures already given show that about eighty per cent. of the children in Prussia between *six and fourteen* years of age are enrolled each year, while in Ohio the school attendance is about seventy-five per cent, of the number of youth between *five and twenty-one* years of age. We are not able to state what per cent. of our youth between six and fourteen (the school period of Prussia) attended school last year, but the statistics show that it was not much less than eighty per cent.—the standard reached in Prussia in 1849. It was probably full eighty per cent. Recent statistics, which I have seen, show that *eighteen* per cent. of the entire population of Prussia are in school in a given year. Our statistics for last year show that about *twenty-two* per cent. of our population were enrolled in the schools, and, making a liberal reduction for errors, our statistics will still show, I think, that the school attendance is as large a per cent. of the population in Ohio as in Prussia.

Thanks to Mr. Rickoff, who has given us statistics showing the number of youth in Cleveland and the number attending school for each year of age between five and twenty-one, we are able to compare the school attendance of Cleveland with that of Prussia. The Cleveland table shows that *eighty* per cent. of the youth of the city between six and fourteen were enrolled in the *public* schools last year. The enrollment in Prussia includes the middle and higher schools, the upper female schools, and the celebrated gymnasia, which doubtless had a considerable number of pupils

een years of age. Making due allowance for this fact, the school attend-
tter in Cleveland last year than it was in Prussia in 1849. We have no
nparing the attendance in private schools, but we believe that a greater
of the youth were in private schools in Cleveland than in Prussia. So
statistics go, the voluntary system is not failing. I have not time to
e efficacy of a compulsory law, even were it possible to execute it, which
h doubt. What would be the effect of such a law? Mr. Ormsby gave us
mportant facts bearing on this point. Some of the cantons of Switzer-
, compulsory law, and others have not. The attendance in those cantons
voluntary system, is equal to the attendance in the cantons having the
system. The attendance in Holland without a compulsory law is equal
Bavaria with a compulsory law. These and other facts seem to show that
ry sytem, when supported by appropriate agencies, reaches the people as
nd effectively as the compulsory system. Before I can favor the enact-
eneral compulsory law in this country, I wish to be satisfied that it will
am not sure that the enactment of a law that children shall attend school
is in the year between six and fourteen, or six and twelve, would not de-
ggregate school attendance. It would set up a standard, which hundreds
would accept as the measure of their highest duty to their children, and
would be sent to school a less number of years than they now attend
e influence of teachers and those who are endeavoring to elevate the popular
education and secure a longer attendance in school. It is believed that
outh attend school more years than those accustomed to the compulsory
While, therefore, I grant the State plenary power to establish and ad-
ompulsory system, I have serious doubts respecting the efficiency and
f the measure. I find myself clinging to our American system of volun-
attendance, and if we will only take care of the truants and vagrants,
ren who are moral orphans, without parental care and control, if we res-
icate these, I think we may trust a little while longer to this grand vol-
em, planted by our fathers and consecrated by their prayers.

COCK: I think it will be a long time before the voluntary system will
riminal population, found in our own city and every other large city,—
such as we find in some of the more wretched portions of New York. I
ire if it is not a fact that, as the cities all over the world increase in popu-
age, the vagrant and criminal population increases in a ratio much greater
f the population. The more dense the population, the greater is the ratio
s. I want, Mr. President, to save these boys, who have minds just as
hearts just as good naturally as those that are reared in our princely
want to save them from the work-houses, I want to save them from the
the penitentiary and scaffold; and, if the voluntary system will do it, I
amen to it. But it has not done it; and, if we must wait for it to do it,
y, in the language of scripture, "Oh, Lord how long"! How many
s of these children must go to destruction?

TE: Supplement the voluntary system by an efficient truant law that will
class. I doubt whether a general compulsory law will do it.

WOOD: Would not a local law in the cities where this evil exists answer
tter than a general system applying to the rural districts where it is not

SCOCK: I have had experience in both city and country districts, and I do
hat the evil of truancy is greater in the city than in the country.

W: It seems to me, Mr. President, that there is a slight misapprehension

in the terminology used in this great question, as it has thus far been considered. We talk about compulsory education; but every educator here knows full well, from his observation and experience, that this is a solecism. What child, especially in its early years, does not desire to be reached by the thing we all desire, and to be saved from the influence which we all deplore? He needs no compulsion to enter the school-room, there to be benefitted by education. He needs no compelling, but, through all the depths of his infant soul, cries for the privilege of entering within the circle, the charmed circle, of educational influences, to qualify himself for the duties of citizenship. Last winter, I suggested to Mr. Cessna, the author of the only bill on this subject that came before either House of the Legislature, for the last two years, that he change the title of his bill, making it read, "An act for the prevention of compulsory ignorance." I suggested to him, that every child would readily attend school if it had the opportunity, and he was so struck with the thought, that he changed his title, and used my language; but the idea was laughed at by members of the House, and he gave it up. Now, if we could thus shape this matter; if we could, by some legislation, remove the cause that restrains children from entering the school-room; if we could strike down those inevitable circumstances that surround so many children of our State all through the school year, it seem to me, we could avoid all the weighty objections that are made against the measure. The State certainly has a right to protect the child from crime; the State has a right to protect the child from those inevitable circumstances that keep it from being educated. In the case where the child is an orphan, thrown upon society, with no inheritance but that of poverty, and misery, and crime, let the State take measures to make these unfortunate ones its wards. They are as truly so as the blind—more so, than the blind, or deaf and dumb, for whom asylums are erected, and everybody praises the State for doing it. Nobody blames the State for assuming the right, or questions the right of the State in taking these children there. It seems to me that, while I would recommend all the things that are recommended in this resolution, I would frame it so as to make it express the deliberate judgment, that the State should provide for every child born within its limits, all the provisions and opportunities for such a training as will be necessary for the intellect, for citizenship, and for a respectable and virtuous life. There can be no objectio to such a measure; because the State takes its strong arm and puts criminals in the Penitentiary, and takes the lives of criminals, who were once children. With all our ideas of republicanism, we believe that if the State would stretch out its strong arm, and properly train the children, it would save the expense incurred in taking care of them, after they become criminals. This is the way I look upon the subject, and hence I am in favor of what you all mean, when you say "compulsory education." However, I would not bring it, in the way of compulsory attendance; because, if you say that all shall be compelled to attend school, ninty-nine out of one hundred would want to stay away; but, place children in such a way that each can do what he pleases, and they will desire, above all things, to do that what is best.

MR. WHITE: We have with us a representative from a neighboring State, which has lately passed a compulsory law, and we would be glad to hear from him. I refer to Mr. Doty, Superintendent of the public schools of Detroit, Michigan.

MR. DUANE DOTY: In reference to the particular matter under discussion, I have but little to say, though I have been much interested in what has been said. In a late visit to Massachusetts, I found that the compulsory law of that State was not productive of any good results, in many of the cities and towns, and this seemed to be the universal opinion of the School Superintendents with whom I talked. Our compulsory law was passed last winter, under the constitutional limit of ninety days, and has not taken effect. We do not know what will be the practical result

ts that all children between six and fourteen years of age shall attend school days during the school year, and any citizen may complain, if he knows the not obeyed.

reason why so large a number of children are supposed not to attend school, from the fact that the enumeration is almost always based upon the school , which, in Michigan, embraces the enumeration of all persons between five enty years. According to the report of our State Superintendent, we had, ar, seventy per cent. of our entire enumerated youth (between five and twenty enrolled in the public schools, and about fifty-two per cent. attended school nonths in the year—which is, I think, a large attendance. I fully agree with nd, Mr. White, that few inferences can be drawn from our school statistics in to the number of youth who never attend school. This difficulty is, of course, in the city of Cincinnati, whose school census gives an enrollment of a little han *one-half* of its entire population. Taking this as a basis, there must be mbers of enumerated youth who can not get into school. The school census cinnati is a curiosity to us in the West; we hardly understand it. I find that ool census of most of our western towns is only thirty-three to thirty-five per f the entire population.

h to say one or two words, while I have the floor, upon another topic. I was leased at a remark made to me to-day, by an ex-president of this Associa- He said he thought it would be a capital idea to hear from educational friends broad, and, as a payment for that service, he thought that the Ohio Associa- ight be willing, sooner or later, to send a missionary to Michigan! I like ea of our sending for teachers from abroad. I had the honor, a year ago, to sident of our State Teachers' Association, and, adopting the plan of Hon. De linton, who said the Governor's duty was, not only to see what ought to be ut to see that the Legislative body did it, I took the responsibility of in- the editor of one of our daily papers in Detroit, and Mr. Z. R. Brockaway, perintendent of our House of Correction, to address the Association. The ive Committee asked me why I had selected men outside of the profession. ed that our Association had never been addressed by outsiders, and I thought time to learn that there were many people in this world that knew as much lid. The addresses of these men were good, and I like the plan of having ne-fourth to one-third of the speakers from other professions. We thus enlist nen, and they co-operate with us much more earnestly.

word, in regard to the school statistics of the State of Michigan, to which we iven some attention. Our State, which has always worked harmoniously ie State of Ohio, with the exception of the "Toledo War," has a larger area, not so large a population. Our population is a trifle over 1,200,000, and we out 400,000 youth, between the ages of five and twenty years. The school y of the Stath is valued at $6,500,000. It is a curious fact that the value of operty is above $16 for each person of the census enrollment, and a little $5 for each person of the entire population. I find the school property in all al schools districts in the State is as valuable as it is in our cities and towns. hool property for the entire State is worth just as much for each child as it is ity of Detroit, although the average wealth of Detroit is much greater. In of Boston, it is twice as great as it is in the city of Detroit. The wealth to center in the large towns. In the city of Detroit, the wealth is about),000 to 80,000 people, while in other parts of the State, it is $340 to each

University, which is one of the leading institution of the kind in the land, ently secured as its President, Pres. Angell of the Vermont University, whose

inaugural I heard the other day, with a great deal of pleasure. The faculty of the University have resolved to receive the diplomas of our high schools, in lieu of examinations, which gives great satisfaction, as it makes an intimate connection between the high school and the University. Eight boys were recently admitted from my high school, on the diplomas of the school.

I begin to feel that our system of voluntary free schools is beyond the domain of experiment. According to the report of the United States Commissioner of Education, $60,000,000 were expended last year on the free schools of this land, and only about one-twentieth of all the persons enrolled in the the schools were in private schools. We find men in every community who are opposed to the free schools, and I am convinced that our teachers are not sufficiently posted respecting the grounds upon which our entire system of free education is based. I have always urged the teachers of my own State, that they should be fortified with arguments with which to answer all objections to the system. Let teachers but make themselves more familiar with these arguments and these objectors will be met without difficulty.

THE WANTS OF UNGRADED SCHOOLS.*

BY U. T. CURRAN, CINCINNATI, OHIO.

In the time allotted to me, it will be impossible to do more than barely notice a few of the more pressing necessities of ungraded schools and give a general passing glance at their present condition. I shall endeavor rather to present several salient points for discussion, than to exhaust any one of them.

Of the many measures which have been advocated for the improvement of the confessedly bad state of ungraded schools, the project of county superintendency has been urged more persistently than any other—with what success, we all know. Every one must be convinced that, at present, county superintendency is a political impossibility. Besides, it is my honest conviction that a great majority of those who would be most benefited, are opposed to the measure. Under the present arrangement, there is a security from inspection, which is peculiarly pleasing to that army of teachers who rejoice in the possession of a six-month certificate. None but competent teachers advocate supervision, and their name is not legion.

I anticipate much good from the thorough examination which, I notice, is beginning to obtain throughout the State. We will find this a powerful lever for the advancement of the profession. This subject was, however, thoroughly discussed at our last meeting.

Need I refer to the holding of teachers' instiutes? Whatever life we have, we owe to them.

The abolition of the sub-district system would put the township schools in a far better condition than they now are.

* A report read before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 5, 1871. At the request of Mr. Curran, we publish only an abstract of the report.—EDITOR.

The passage of a law permitting the rural districts to levy local taxes at as high rates as towns, is a measure which needs no argument to commend it to thinking men. When did our solons learn that farmers were so fond of taxation that they needed to be guarded by more restriction than villagers?

By the present system of distribution of the State school tax, those parts of the country which have become the great centers of wealth, are forced to pay taxes which go to the support of others. Hamilton county pays from $20,000 to $40,000 yearly more than she receives. Were the cost of taxation the same in all parts of the State, this perhaps would not be a matter of so great injustice. But the State, having undertaken to educate her children, furnishes Monroe county a teacher for $50 per month, who would cost Hamilton county $75 or $80. What is the consequence? Hamilton county is obliged to make up the deficit by local taxation. In 1870, Hamilton county lost $20,000; in 1871, she gains $900. What is the reason of this great disparity? Is it possible that her grand duplicate is that much less? That is not the case. Can it be that she has increased that much in enumeration? The census teaches no such lesson Experience teaches that, in this country, where laws are virtually the will of the governed, those which outrage the sense of justice of the community will either be evaded or violated with impunity. I merely allude to these matters in a cursory manner, hoping they may be discussed by the Association at more length. Some of them have received their share of attention; others have not.

The object of the free-school system of the State is to educate the masses as *citizens*, and hence pupils should be taught those rudiments of learning which will enable them to secure the results of their labor, and spend them to advantage. They should also be put in possession of those rudiments of education which are the key to higher knowledge. Although the advancement of civilization is such that a modicum of education will not enable one to maintain the position of mediocrity in the world of thinkers, yet we are not permitted to inaugurate mental gymnasia as such; we must supply the fundamental wants of society. To do that we must select that knowledge which is of the most worth. This has not been done. The curriculum of common-school education is loaded with much rubbish which should be swept away. It is hoped that the ungraded schools may escape the mania for higher education, which is ruining the usefulness of many town schools. Arithmetic should be taught well. Such operations as are useful in life should be selected and thoroughly taught. Mathematical curiosities and the rubbish of decayed centuries should be discarded. English composition can be well substituted for the teaching of *technical* grammar, which is an artificial system; it does not exist in the language. Geography and history, and the science of common things shold receive more attention, since they tend greatly to make intelligent men.

The greatest evil in country schools is the multiplicity of classes. The greatest number taught by one man, to my knowledge, is *forty-five*, in one day of six hours, recesses included. In an ungraded school of sixty pupils, there are seven distinct schools, if graded according to their advancement in reading;

four in arithmetic; two in geography; two in grammar; three in spelling; two in writing; one in history, and one in algebra. In a case which presents such difficulties, where every plan which our judgment would approve, is forbidden by the nature of things, a compromise which will choose the less evils, is the only way open. The best plan, in my opinion, is to reduce the number of divisions. Why not reduce the number of reading classes? Where the first and second readers are now used, there need be but one book. Three books would serve instead of six. Other studies might be reduced in the same way.

But why make suggestions respecting the patching of a system which needs a new genesis? In the presence of the work before me, I feel as if chaos were placed in my hands and I were to organize it into cosmos, when I had no control over its elements. The cosmic egg has not been found. The system of instruction, management, and organization of country schools is the outgrowth of *each teacher's experience.* What mean the frequent questions in theory and practice, "How would you organize a school?" "When would you consider your school permanently organized?" Is there a permanently organized ungraded school in the State? Why is there such unceasing change of teachers? Does it not indicate the dissatisfaction of the people with the blunders of tyros and empirics? At every change of seasons there is an intellectual earthquake and this is repeated until chaos becomes chronic. The good teacher is tempted by a better salary: his place is filled by one who finds it to his interest to show that everything has been wrong and that there must be a radical change. He knows text-books, but not *subjects*, and taboos that which has not been the aliment of his intellectual infancy.

The only cure for the admitted inferiority of country schools is to provide *better teachers.* "Like priest, like people." As the teacher is, so will be the school. Teachers should receive *professional* education. This can not be done by private enterprise: the State must create normal schools. Teaching school is not a legitimate function of government; but the State has assumed to teach. The full control of education is in her hands; she has placed a disability on the profession by creating a virtual limit, beyond which men can not hope to pass. The consequence is, that ambitious men leave the profession at the time their experience becomes an available means of improvement. There is no settled philosophy of teaching or plan of schools recognized by the teachers of the country schools; every teacher starts *de novo*, and expects a system of instruction to spring from his brain as Minerva from the head of Jupiter.

What will give us good teachers? What will give us something tangible as a system? To what will the people look as authority? How can we introduce new methods? What will tend to remove the disabilities under which we labor? How can we regain our lost position among our sister States? What our State now owes to her schools, above all other things, is the establishment of a State Normal School. The opportunity to begin with small expense is now offered in the gift of the McNeely Normal School.

As a fountain can rise no higher than its source, so can the schools be no better than the teachers. A normal school will give, in due time, a class of teachers who will give character to the teaching of the State, and as soon as the people see the results of such an institution, they will vote to give us eight

, instead of one or two. Our best efforts should be directed to attain
:sult. Let every teacher in county institutes bring this subject before the
e. Engage the press in the work. We can do nothing without *it*. Let
engage in this project with unanimity and enthusiasm. No great work
ver performed by croakers. If we, who are here present this day, are
with that zeal which sees only success before it, we are able to place this
are before the people in such a light that it will meet with no opposition.
e whole matter then resolves itself thus: We need good schools—the
e demand them. No legislation or resolution can create them; they are
roduct of the individual teacher. If he is good, they will be good.
rience has shown that the ungraded schools of Ohio are not taught by good
ers. The State has assumed to teach; she must provide teachers. The
:ements, leading men into the profession, fail to fill the ranks with good
ers. Normal school training will strike at the root of this superlatively
evil more effectively and quickly than all other measures combined.

DISCUSSION OF MR. CURRAN'S REPORT.

RGE S. ORMSBY, of Xenia: What are the wants of our ungraded schools? In
per we were informed that one important want is good teachers. In my judg-
this, perhaps, is the greatest want of all; for I care not what arrangements we
nake, what appliances we may have at hand, what course of study we may
, or what text-books we may use, unless we shall have the *teacher* to use these
rly, it will all be of no avail. The leading want, then, is the teacher. How
that be met? That is the question not only for the people of Ohio to deter-
but for the teachers themselves. The teachers of ungraded schools must ask
hey can better prepare themselves for properly doing their great work. They
understand not only the work in their own ungraded schools, but they must
stand the better systems in our graded schools. It would pay them well,
less, to visit the schools in our cities. They must attend the teachers' insti-
in their counties. It would pay the State, if their expenses were paid and
wages continued while they are engaged in seeking this kind of information.
ther great evil in ungraded schools is the want of uniformity in text-books.
ld suggest that the book agents, who are now turned out upon the community,
not do a better thing for their country than to go around and gather up all
old books in the country schools, covered with the accumulated dust of fifty
, and supply them with a uniformity of readers, arithmetics, and geographies!
formity of text-books would reduce the number of classes. The gentleman
orty-five recitations are the greatest number that he has understood to be in
hool. I imagine that he will find a greater number than that if he examine
lly into the facts. In some of our ungraded schools, they have every geogra-
hat has been in use since Noah's ark rested on Ararat, and as many classes as
aphies. Instead of a single set of books, the people in the country use the old
which their grandfathers and great-grandfathers used.

ther difficulty, hard to change, is the unclassified condition of the ungraded
ls. A boy, sixteen years of age, is in the sixth reader, when he ought to be in
econd; but he is too much of a man to be placed down in the primary class to
to read fluently. I am not here to recommend any special text-book; but
is a reader, prepared for teachers' institutes, which contains a wide course of
ng. It is an excellent book, in my judgment, and if it were placed in the

hands of the teachers of our ungraded schools, the difficulty of classification in reading classes would not be so great as it is now. When the teacher in many of our common schools undertakes to merge two or three classes into one, a rebellion grows out of it, and the teacher may be dismissed because he puts the larger boys with the little ones. If we had a reader of such a nature that we could find in it pieces adapted to different grades of pupils, great good would be accomplished.

WM. WATKINS: This question of common school education, important and interesting as it is, since the greater bulk of our population reside in the country districts, is yet one which is very difficult to treat correctly. No one knows very much about our ungraded country schools by experience, because no one stays in them very long. The teachers change so frequently, and so rapid is the line of promotion that if a teacher shows himself capable, he is soon called to a position more responsible and affording higher pay. The whole force of teachers in the ungraded schools is continually changing, no one attaining a very large experience in them. It seems to me, however, that the difficulties under which they at present labor, might be classified into three divisions: those of organization, those of grading, and those that relate to the culture of teachers. So far as organization is concerned, the difficulty is found in the school system itself. I do not believe that we shall ever succeed in administering these schools by means of local cross-road directors. All experience proves that we can chop this matter of political administration too fine. Anything smaller than a township will run into individual matters. We must have a township system, managed by men especially chosen therefor, and in a body so large that those little personal preferences, which now rule and ruin our schools, will be ashamed to show themselves. I do not think that the grading of common schools is a matter of so much importance as the one we have just spoken of. If the school is small, the number of classes is not more than a teacher can well attend to. Within the last ten years, it has been my fortune to teach one country school, and I had no embarrassment on account of numbers. I had thirty-five scholars, and, perhaps, ten or twelve classes. I got through with everything to be done just as easily as I could in a graded school. But there are districts in which the number of pupils is larger than any teacher can easily take care of. What must be done? The school may be graded, as in cities or villages, and a teacher for each department employed, or, what is perhaps better, the board of education may hire a teacher for the year, and assign different grades of pupils to different seasons of the year. Pupils of fifteen or sixteen, who want to study algebra, higher arithmetic, and English grammar, can be assigned to the winter term, and the small children to the summer term.

We now come to the culture of teachers. The school receives its character from the teacher himself, and how are we to have suitable teachers in our common schools? In no way is it possible, unless the common people can, by some means, be made more intelligent upon the subject of common schools. To say that they feel no interest in schools, is belied by their conduct towards them; but to say that they are intelligent in their action, is to say what the facts in our experience will not justify. We need not so much more interest in common schools, as more intelligence on common school questions. When this is the case, incompetent teachers will be no longer employed. The people have failed to understand, as they should understand, these school matters, and, in some way, they must be waked up and enlightened. Who can tell how?

SAMUEL PATRICK, of Solon: I understood one of the speakers to say that the country districts are opposed to county superintendents. Is this so? Our cities and many of our villages are supplied with superintendents, and nineteen-twentieths of our legislators are taken from cities and villages, and they represent that the people there think they must pay for county supervision, and hence oppose it. There is

where the opposition is. In visiting the schools in Northern Ohio, I have never met a teacher who was opposed to county superintendency, but all are in favor of it. The difficulty in the way is chargeable to the cities.

MR. HANCOCK: Will the gentleman allow me to correct a mistake?

MR. PATRICK: Certainly, sir.

MR. HANCOCK: When the bill for county superintendency was before the Legislature of our State, every member from Hamilton county voted for its passage, and it was defeated by those from the rural districts and villages.

MR. PATRICK: Mr. President, was it not defeated because it was supposed that the salaries of the superintendents would be paid out of the state school fund? Members of the Legislature, who wrote me letters upon the subject, so represented it. But, be that as it may, our country teachers are not opposed to this measure.

Something has been said about the teachers in country schools. But how are these schools to keep good teachers, when our city superintendents are watching for them, like wolves, to take them to the city. I wish there was a law by which these superintendents could be kept out of the country. (Laughter.) But you say that if we wish to retain these teachers in the country, we must pay them better. Tie my hands and then command me to run, will you? The law says we may raise three mills on the dollar, and no more, to pay teachers. This amount is raised in my own district, and we have not money enough to keep a six months' school. In many townships in Cuyahoga county, they raise every cent the law allows, and they have not money enough to sustain their schools more than six months.

W. D. HENKLE: In the codified school bill, submitted to the General Assembly last winter, the same rate of tax was allowed in all parts of the State, irrespective of the fact of their being in the country or in the cities and towns. The fact was prominently brought out this afternoon, that there has been a discrimination against the rural districts. Township boards have been allowed to tax three mills for tuitional purposes, and two mills for contingent purposes, while the town boards have been allowed to levy, since 1866, seven mills for school and school-house purposes. Every body knows that the taxable property in the town bears a greater proportion to the number of children than the wealth in the country to the number of children in the country. Two-thirds or three-fifths of the whole number enumerated, of the youth in Ohio, are residents of the country; and there are many townships in the State that have to levy the whole five mills on the dollar, and then are not able to sustain the schools six months. I have had letters from the southern part of the State, complaining that they have done all the law allowed in the matter of taxation, and were unable to fulfill the law, in keeping open school twenty-four weeks in the year. I think if any distinction is made at all, it ought to be made in favor of the country. A higher rate of taxation ought to be allowed in the country than in town. I discovered a singular fact the other day, in visiting Wilmington. We have a law, or rather a section in a law, passed last winter, reducing the rate of levy one-fourth from what it was before. The General Assembly, in its desire to please the farmers of the State, made a reduction of about twelve per cent., or allowed the Board of Equalization to do so, on the return made by the Board of Equalization on the real estate of Ohio, and this, taken with some other reduction, made the reduction in Wilmington about 22 per cent., and it now appears that in the village of Wilmington the taxable property is about two hundred thousand dollars less than it was before; so that the rate of the levy has been reduced and also the valuation of the real estate. This latter reduction has brought down the taxable property two hundred thousand dollars less than it was before. Now they are in great trouble about what they ought to do to sustain their schools. They had them in

good running order. It told a story that I thought hardly existed in the State. I also learned by a visit to Akron, that the taxable property there has not been greatly increased. The population has been doubled within five years. New structures had been previously put on the tax duplicate; consequently they do not have an increase to the same amount.

PRESIDENT DEUEL: I understand that the same state of things exists in Zanesville.

MR. HENKLE: I was in Zanesville a short time ago. They were in a terrible quarrel there—the board of education and council—on school matters. Although that change made in the law last winter, was meant to reach the cities, still there are cases in which it will work a hardship. It was made on the general increase all over the State. It seems to me that the rate of taxation for schools ought not to be a fixed number of mills on the dollar all over the State; but it should be adjusted some way—a certain per cent. of the taxable property on the duplicate. In a city like Cincinnati, where they have a yearly duplicate, the rate of levy could be brought down lower; and where the duplicate is small, we have to increase the rate to meet the exigencies of the case.

MUSIC IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.*

BY N. COE STEWART, CLEVELAND, OHIO.

To educators of modern times, education means *development, growth.* Prepare the soil, select the seed, sow it, properly cultivate, reap the harvest. Preparation, development, final results should be the order in teaching every study, in developing properly every life. An imperfection in the first or second will surely be manifest in the last.

God gives the life, the body, the mind, the soul of the child to the parent, and says "train up for me." The parent begins the training very rarely with sufficient appreciation or knowledge, and at a certain age hands the material, not always the best, over to the teacher, saying, "Develop this-to-be-self-acting creature into the being called *man*, who shall be qualified to go through life, realizing what he is, whither he is going, what his relations and duties are to his fellow man, to animate and inanimate creation, and to his God, and capable of enjoying himself to the fullest extent in the right discharge of all these relationships.

The teacher, who is supposed to have made some preparation for this very work, accepts the trust, and knowing its vastness, and, realizing his weakness, casts about for whatever assistance he can obtain. He studies the child to learn what his inclinations are, what his capacity, the best way to start the growth of all his faculties, what exercise and nourishment he needs, until, in body, mind and soul, he is ready to leave the teacher's hands, and enter the race for heaven, through the way called life, reflecting on all as he passes the influence of a perfect man, made in God's own image. The very best way has not, per-

* A report read before the Ohio Teachers' Association, July 6, 1871.

ps, been discovered. The teacher, though working, is still inquiring more
xious than ever before to know the best way.

He has learned pretty well how to develop the mind and the body, he knows
orthodox way of leading the soul to heaven, but that something else, in
se connection with the soul, which continually wells up and demands ex-
ssion, and which manifests itself continually during a walk on a fine spring
rning in a confidential talk with a bosom friend, in the social and family
le, at the death-bed, in the great congregation, everywhere that the senses
ceive or the mind contemplates, and in which the man really *lives* and
ys—this I say he does not understand so well. In the progress of civiliza-
, the demand is now made that this part of the education be looked after,
is it not well to learn how properly to handle this material?

There are comparatively few parents who have the knowledge, or who take
time and pains necessary to start aright or continue the development of the
ld. Hence (although home influences, whatever they may be, will always
uence the child more or less) the common school is emphatically the place
ere he *learns to live*. Not alone the ordinary round of school studies should
e be attended to, but all that can be taught in school, and which goes to
ke up a *happy life*. Is it not true, then, that a teacher, by carefully consid-
ng what it is that makes up a well-developed and well-regulated life, and, by
ping before him this beau-ideal of a perfect man, has the best guide to his
k that it is possible for him to have? Who would not prefer that his child
taught self-respect, self-government, to be instructed in the duties he owes
thers and how to discharge them, and to grow up with a warm, generous,
ing heart, than, without these qualities, to have all the scientific knowledge
s possible for a human being to possess? I assume that no argument is
essary to show to an audience like this, that, without the education of the
rt, the emotions, and the finer sensibilities, an education is very incomplete;
, that the proper time to begin this education is at the dawn of life, and
t it must be continued to riper years?

"No man liveth to himself, and no man dieth to himself." Our *feelings*
ch us that we can not live happily without others; others can not live with-
us. The reciprocal relation, then, between man and man is a necessary
t of life, and it is evident that, if each individual life was pure and good,
benefit arising from association would be the most salutary. All can
dily see how much happier we would be, if we could sit down with our
ghbor, and have a free interchange of views, telling him our feelings and
ires without the fear that he would in some way take advantage of it to in-
us, or wrongfully promote his own interests. It is very rare, indeed, that
can do such a thing now, and be happier for having such heart commu-
n. Anything that will have a tendency to break down the cold partitions
distrust and so change man as to give him the confidence and sympathy of
fellow, must be hailed as a benefactor.

Music *invariably* has this tendency. I mean that music that comes from
heart as the expression of its emotions and desires. Such music invaria-
calls out corresponding emotions in the listener, and enables the artist to
ntrol at will. This capacity of feeling and expressing that feeling gives a

Nillsson, a Parepa, a Lind her power; and where there is the feeling, although not always having the medium of a cultivated voice to give it expression, it will be effective. This it is that so electrifies when a poor sinner, in the agony of his heart, cries out,

"Show pity, Lord, O Lord, forgive."

Some of the most wonderful effects attributed to the great revivalists and reformers' preaching was through the singing of persons whose hearts had become completely aroused by their eloquence. It is said "a whistling boy is never a bad boy." "A naturally bad man never sings." A distinguished Senator once remarked in my hearing, "I have never known a musical family that was a quarrelsome family. When the angry passions begin to rise, a song is certain to subdue them." In Germany and Holland, where singing is almost universal, a social quarrel is very rare, and among the better class in those same countries there is more real sociability and fraternal feeling than in any other country under the sun. In proportion as singing is introduced, such is the result.

The numerous historic accounts of reforms being successful, of victories being won, through the influence of music, are doubtless well known to all. They serve to show, not only the power of music, but that its effect is to make man happier and better.

The effects of music are said by some to be merely sensual. It is addressed to the ear, indeed, but all the influences which we receive from without, are conveyed through the medium of the senses; and the tones of music often speak a language to the soul richer in meaning than any words. It will hardly be pretended that feelings which can not be expressed in words, are necessarily of a lower character than those which may be so expressed. The most elevated feelings are beyond the power of even metaphorical language. Nothing is merely sensual which makes a lasting spiritual impression upon the soul, and he who denies music such a power, has not heard its sublimest strains, or has not the capacity to appreciate them.

Again, it is said, "the devil has the best music, and it should be transferred to the other side", which implies, as you will readily perceive, that the same music is alike the expression of all varieties of emotion. But set some such music to pious words, sing it at the *a tempo* his majesty usually takes, and the result is far different from that indicated by the words. No; licentious music to be effective must come from wicked hearts; pious music from pious hearts; and each, when rendered by those who appreciate it, is *certain to produce its like effect.*

Though it is possible, I do not believe that it is likely, that the time will ever come when all will have sufficient creative genius and knowledge of composition to express their feeling in composition of their own; when, like Mendelsohn, Beethoven, and Mozart, all can sit down to the piano, and put a company in an ecstacy of delight, or move them to tears at will. But songs and tunes are and will be written for every occasion, and to express every variety of emotion, and I think the time will come when every one can express his feelings in song.

I allow that the many cases of irritable and dissipated musicians seem to isprove that the effect of music is to make people better and happier, but that ıey are thus dissipated, is not because of music, but because some other ma- ırial part of their education has been neglected. Like the inhabitants of kitzland, that part of the body or mind which they use or think most about, ey become; as, all arm, all eye, or all memory. I am aware that it is a diffi- ılt matter for those who do not sing, to appreciate that it makes people hap- er and better to sing; for, like experimental religion, the *knowing* depends ıon the *doing*, but in most cases, I think, the sight and judgment of thinking achers can be trusted to indorse even that which they can not, from a lack their education, fully appreciate.

Now, as every one who can sing, is better and happier because of it, if the ıging is done in the right way, and is the result of a proper development— r bear in mind that the mere production of musical sounds is not singing— e question arises, Can all learn to sing? Will it pay to take the time and ouble, and incur the expense necessary to learn? In reply to the first, I ıswer, that, to the extent that all have voices to talk or read, they have voices ıd can learn to sing. If it is possible for them to feel badly or happy, or if ey can cry or laugh when feeling so, they have sufficient talent to become ngers; and if they value their happiness, it will pay for the time, trouble, and ıpense. Remembering that it is a development, it is hardly possible that, be- nning later in life, the same proficiency may be attained; still a great deal ay be done even then, as though commencing earlier.

By saying all can learn to sing, I do not wish to be understood to say that l can become equally proficient, that all can become fine artists, or that l have the same capacity to feel. By no means; and it would not be best if ey could; but all who have a voice to speak, an ear to distinguish a differ- ce between sounds, and a spark of feeling, can, at the very least, so ırn as to be able to unite their voices with others in song. And why not? here the philosophical reason? The same vocal chords are used that are ed in speech, the same lungs, the same modifying organs; besides the ıny inductions made by teachers prove the same thing. In the final exami- tions in the Cleveland schools, for the year just closed, the pupils were all amined alone—six parts of the examination out of ten were singing—and, my knowledge, there was not a single pupil, large or small, male or female, o could not sing the major scale. Yet last year, many of these same pupils ıre supposed to be of the kind who could not learn to sing; who had no mu- al talent. Still more, some of the best voices and finest singers are coming from s class. It is necessary, not only that the pupils try, but that they keep trying. r, beginning at the various ages of pupils in our schools, some can not make ı desired sounds at first—some can hardly tell a high sound from a low one; t if they are properly directed, and persevere, notwithstanding the change the voice, all will soon be able to sing. One of the Cleveland Principals marked the other day, "I am satisfied, from seeing the pupils in my district, ıo have reached the age of from thirteen to twenty years, without hav- g learned to read, that if as many persons had grown to maturity without ıving learned to read, as there are now who have not learned to sing, just as

many would say: 'I have no talent for reading,' as now say, 'I have no talent for singing,'" and I believe him. While all can not become as fine elocutionists as Murdoch, yet all can learn to read. While few can learn to write like a Spencer, yet all can learn to write legibly.

One of the most striking results of a general musical culture would be the entire change, in form and feeling, of the singing part of the church service. The contentions and jealousies existing in choirs, the difficulty music committees and those having the matter in control experience in keeping up the singing, is only an evidence of the lack of general musical culture. For, comparatively few persons have such preëminent musical talent and cultivation that they can, in singing, control the feelings of the masses, even against their will. In a church, four or more singers, usually members of the congregation, compose the choir. Perhaps there are from thirty to fifty persons in the congregation who, with the same amount of practice, could sing as well as they. Service begins; the singers not being able to carry the feelings of the audience, in spite of existing jealousies, the listeners, instead of worshiping, instead of allowing their feelings to be carried away by the beautiful sentiment, are harboring feelings just the opposite of Christian. This feeling soon finds expression in words which, reaching the ears of the singers or music committee, an eruption soon follows, and we hear the inevitable conclusion, "Singers are the most sensitive people in the world." Now if all were taught to sing, they could, as they should, unite in the service. I venture to say that, excepting those rare cases where the choir is composed of acknowledged talent, there always will be trouble, until there is this general musical culture. And it may be that this is one of the scourges the Almighty is using to drive us to it. In Germany and Holland, the children's singing is the most effective part of the service. This we lose; whereas, with our system of common schools, we might do better than they. In coöperation there is pleasure. What person who enjoys dancing, would stand by and see a single set dance all the evening, and derive the same satisfaction as if he participated?

Having said thus much about the beneficial effects, in a general way, and the obligations of a general musical culture, the question arises, "If all can learn, and should be taught to sing, who are to be the teachers?" Manifestly the place is where the masses are educated. Were it necessary, public opinion has not nearly reached the point where a School Board would be permitted to engage a sufficient number of music teachers to instruct properly all in the schools. The whole matter of correct music teaching is a gradual development, and hence, no teacher coming once a week can do much more than teach some songs by rote, and give very little insight to music reading. Again, a majority of our professional music teachers, though fine performers, perhaps do not comprehend the work, are not educators, and hence are incompetent. From this lack of fitness, I think, as a rule, more injury than good has been done by their attempts in this direction.

The only alternative then is the regular teacher. But, very few teachers sing, besides there would be great averseness to the undertaking. Very true;

yet a good many who do not sing, have a great deal of the culture necessary to become singers, have an appreciation of music, and lack only the vocal sounds to be good singers. Commencing at a late day, they never can expect to excel as singers, yet those who have not seen it, would be astonished to witness what any one can do who takes hold of the matter in earnest, and is determined to succeed. My experience leads me to conclude that there is no intelligent teacher who determines to do it, that can not learn to sing well the songs and exercises used in teaching her school. An appreciation of the work, a determination to do it, the right kind of instruction and a proper help from the Superintendent of Music, it may be, is the order and condition that will lead to the best results it is possible to attain, under the present condition of things. It is said by some music professors, "Ladies can not teach music; it is nonsense to say they must try it. Besides, if they succeeded, it would ruin our profession." In answer to the first objection, I say, bear in mind, it is not merely voice that is necessary; culture must be a condition. It is not alone songs and music-reading that are to be taught, but the heart and the affections as well. I have in mind now two classes, taught alternately, A. M, and P. M., by a gentleman who is a regular school master and music teacher, fiddle and all, and a diffident girl, who could sing but little, and who was apprehensive she could not do the work at all. The man taught one class music, the girl the other. At the end of the year, and it was the children's first year in school, the girl's class sang many times better than the other, and knew five times as much about the elements of singing. And yet, strange to say, this man persisted in saying, "these girls can not teach singing."

With regard to ruining the profession, let me say, that these professors show great short-sightedness. Instead of opposing, they should give it their warmest support; for the more musical culture, the more persons there will be who wish to pursue the study farther than it is likely to be pursued in the public schools. This much it would do, however; it would compel quacks and mere pretenders to leave the profession; but thorough musicians and good teachers would reap an abundant harvest.

The leader of a German singing society said to me, a short time ago, "Many Americans wonder how it is that men of families attend my rehearsals week after week, and year after year, their interest never flagging. It is easily accounted for; these men learned to sing while in school, and they will always love the practice. Take music out of the public schools, and our singing societies would soon cease to exist."

It is economy to have music taught in the schools. Let us see. About four terms of private lessons, often more, are necessary to place the beginner in a good condition to study the piano. This is an expense of at least $40, for one child. Suppose forty pupils in a town take lessons. As much money is paid to teach the forty as would have better instructed three thousand in the public schools. Besides, the teaching of vocal music should always precede the study of the piano. I ought perhaps to say that the teaching of songs by rote and music-reading must be a part of the work, and pupils should be able to read readily, at sight, any tune or exercise embracing the points gone over.

The benefits which result directly to the school from a systematic study of music, are numerous. A correct use of the respiratory, articulating and vocal organs is required, hence it is healthful, and prepares for any experience in which voice is used. Consumption has often been cured by singing. It breaks up and prevents a monotonous tone in reading, and gives a roundness and fullness to the voice that can be obtained in no other way. It is an excellent mental discipline, and no study requires greater concentration of thought. "Considered on its technical side, it rests on acoustics and mathematics It operates in space and time in such a way as to be susceptible of mathematical measurement." Considered as recreation, it is indispensable. When the school is restless, stop and sing; quiet is immediately restored. Too much care can not be taken in the selection of poetry and music. These, when properly wedded together, the song well learned, and its meaning explained, can not fail to teach important truths, which will never be forgotten. The benefits I have mentioned, are but a few of the many. Not only the happiness of individuals, but the moral status and the welfare of the nation are affected and oftentimes determined by its songs. The majority of people, while they may concede, do not appreciate its importance; and, most assuredly, that class who think that to obtain wealth and position and gratify the carnal appetites, is the chief end of man, do not. The work depends upon the common schools. If we wait, before beginning, until a generation of teachers who are qualified to do the work, grows up, it will never be begun at all. The only way left then is to obtain the best assistance we can, commence the work and though it may be with great trepidation, commence it with an ardent desire to do our duty, and the God whose praise we would teach all men to sing, will help us, and will lead to gratifying results.

DISCUSSION OF MR. STEWART'S PAPER.

C. W. Heywood, of East Cleveland: I believe that no topic of greater interest than this has been presented, and I am unwilling to let it pass without a word. It is one concerning which teachers, as well as the community at large, need to be enlightened. The proposition of Mr. Stewart, that every person can learn to sing who has the power to learn to talk is, I believe, literally true. The boy or the girl who has an ear of sufficient keenness to distinguish the tones of speech, and vocal organs of sufficient flexibility to be taught the utterance of his own mother-tongue, can be taught to sing with a degree of excellence which is exactly corresponding to that with which he can acquire the art of speaking and reading. There are some facts which bear upon this proposition. The general opinion is that drawing is an art which only the fortunate few who have genius enough to make draughtsmen, can master. But we have seen to-day a whole school brought out, some four hundred pupils, and all drawing with a good degree of excellence. This warrants the conclusion that the art of drawing is one that can be acquired by any boy whose eye is keen enough to distinguish between a robin and a blue-jay, and who can learn to fire a shot-gun. Any boy that can learn to shoot a robin or a blue-jay, can be taught to draw a representation of either. The city of Cleveland has about one hundred and fifty teachers. Many of these teachers once believed that they never

could be taught to sing. Professor Stewart has had charge of the music in Cleveland two years, I think. He has taught the advanced classes, if I understand correctly, those in the grammar schools and high schools; he has not taught the pupils in the lower grades, but has taught the teachers. Of these teachers all, with two exceptions, have learned to sing; and these two did not try. The examinations in music have been conducted as rigidly as in other branches. Each pupil has been called upon to answer questions, and to sing exercises, in respect to which instruction has been given. The results have been marked exactly as in every other study. Now the Cleveland schools have reached just as high a per cent. in music as in any other branch. I heard Prof. Tourjee, of Boston, state, in the National Teachers' Association, one year ago, that music is taught in the city of Boston in the same way, and that all pupils, without distinction, are taught to sing, and to read music, and that they pass an examination with no greater per cent. of failures than in any other branch. Now these facts show that God has distributed this musical talent just as generally among the human family as he has distributed the power of learning any other branch of science or art.

One reason why music should be taught early is that the organs of respiration and vocalization are then all in process of development. They can readily be brought into exercise in such a way as to develop them, so that the man can do with his voice just whatsoever he may please to do.

Instruction in music is closely connected with reading and elocution. As a teacher of elocution, I have found that children exercised in music at home, can easily be taught the rudiments of elocution and to practice in vocalization. But a boy, fifteen or sixteen years of age, from a family where there is no singing, when asked to attempt a vocalization, modulation, or anything of the kind, is in a tremble. It is with difficulty that I can induce that class of pupils to make a trial. I can take children from six to seven years of age from a family of singers, and I can teach those children all the modulations that Rush describes in his Philosophy of the Voice. Every elocutionist will, I think, bear me out in this statement.

I believe that music lies within the reach of all children who have ears and vocal organs; that the great trouble is that it has not been developed. We need to begin right down at the bottom of the primary school; and there is nothing which we can introduce into our schools, that cultivates the senses, or the judgment of the little child with greater precision, accuracy and power, or that teaches the muscular system to obey the will more thoroughly.

MR. STEWART: There are a great many things to be done before beginning to teach the notes. Taking the objective plan, I teach sound first, and afterwards the science of music. Usually the first thing that is done, is to teach the pupil to imitate. The singing voice depends very much on the speaking voice, and the teacher should first ascertain whether scholars can talk well or not. A very good plan is to ask some little child to tell its name and let this be repeated until it tells its name better than any one else, without pausing or stammering. Then have your pupils say words after you, and thus lead them on, day after day, until they will be able to take up the notes in singing. The teacher says: "Do as I do," and utters several tones in the same pitch, and afterwards varies them. The pupil will imitate the several sounds better than one. When pupils can sing sounds to the number of six or seven, they are ready to begin a little theoretical work, but the rules should not go faster than your pupils know the sounds. They should know the sounds, not only so as to be able to sing them, but so that they can tell them when reading them. You know sounds are relative, or absolute. There are two kinds of pitch, relative and absolute. The relative is indicated by the numerals, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, and the absolute by the letters, a, b, c, d, e, f, g. The relative is always taught first. As

I sound them, the pupil begins, *la* 1, *la* 2, until every one can name the sound as soon as he hears it. A similar course is followed in teaching rhythm. First teach an idea of the necessity of measuring sounds, and develop the idea of measure. Develop one thing after another, no faster than the scholars can comprehend. Take the doing as the standard of knowing. Imitation in singing should be kept up through the entire course. If I sing a chromatic scale, I want the pupils to follow right after me, and they do it. Imitation is the only way we can teach children to sing. Vocalization is better taught in the lower and primary schools than any where else.

DRAWING IN THE SANDUSKY SCHOOLS.

At the close of the presentation of classes from the Sandusky schools, on Thursday morning, Supt. M. F. Cowdery, by request, made an explanation of the methods of instruction employed, especially in drawing. He said that it would be more satisfactory to answer questions of a practical character, which might be asked by the audience. The following questions and answers are selected from those given:

QUESTION—About how much time is devoted to drawing in your schools?

ANSWER, BY MR. COWDERY—We have a little drawing every day—can not tell how much. It occurs rather as a recreation than as a special part of the course. When the pupils have prepared their lessons, they can very profitably spend a little time each day in drawing. We so manage that the exercise does not interfere with the hard work of the students, in getting their lessons, but it is thrown in as a relief, and my observation is that, while it is learned little by little, it is something very valuable to every pupil. It is begun in the primary schools and continued through the course. I may state that the class which drew the leaves on the board, is in the second grade, the pupils being from seven to eight years of age.

Q.—How are these pupils taught to draw leaves?

A.—The subject is introduced in this way. The pupils gather leaves from shrubs different shaped leaves, but mainly simple leaves—and pin them to the board to copy. Thus one kind of leaf after another is gathered and drawn. There is no particular system; no text-book is used, and certainly there is no definite instruction. It is largely the pupils' own work. They take flat surfaces first, such as leaves, instead of round bodies. They take the more simple leaves first, the peach leaf being very good for the beginner. As they pursue their study longer, some perspective is brought in. More or less of this is introduced by teachers. The next step is to have the class take flowers. The transition is very easy and natural. We use both patterns and flowers.

Q.—What do you mean by patterns?

A.—Engravings which are gathered from horticultural magazines, or papers, or books. By practice, they will learn to draw the flowers gathered by hand. In my visits to the schools, I sometimes see the children holding flowers for others to draw.

Q.—Has this practice of drawing been introduced into your schools without the aid of professional teachers? Have the teachers themselves had the aid of professional teachers?

A.—I think there has been no professional instruction received by the teachers, except perhaps in one instance. One of our teachers took lessons in drawing, per-

ps in painting, some years since. This has, no doubt, aided somewhat. Our
chers are not accomplished in drawing, but they are studying the subject, from
m to term, and are making very valuable suggestions to the scholars.

Q.—I would like to ask, if drawing in the Sandusky schools is entirely confined
leaf and flower drawing.

A.—No, sir; we do some other drawing here. It is important to have drawing,
olving perspective, such as drawing the cube. The pictures of birds on the
ards were drawn by scholars.

Q.—Will you state how many years you have carried on this system?

A.—Some four or five years since, we concluded to give drawing one more
al. We thought it a very good thing to have; but our neighbors did not have
ything worthy of the name. In visiting Boston, I saw very little drawing in
schools, except map drawing, which was done with care. Drawing did not
m to belong to the course of instruction at all. In thinking over its real im-
rtance, compared with other subjects, we thought we would give it a test, and,
we could not succeed, we would abandon it altogether. I think our teachers were
ccessful, and, in a few months, it was shown that it was not only desirable, but
at it need not interfere with successful study in other branches. We began with
p-drawing, and from this it was easy to pass to other things. If scholars can
aw a map from memory, they can certainly draw a good many other things. In
resenting the irregularities of coast indentations, they learn many things which
of advantage in drawing flowers and leaves.

Q.—Have you tried inventive drawing?

A.—Not to any great extent. Scholars learn to draw more things than are
en them, and they invent methods of representing flowers in perspective; but
true inventive drawing, we have not attained.

Q.—Do the pupils learn to shade from nature, or from engraved flowers?

A.—Both; the flowers are better to those who have the natural skill. We put
two together; many rely on the patterns, but we put in the flowers also.

Q.—Do the scholars draw singly, or do they go to the board together?

A.—Both. Our pupils unite drawing with their regular lessons. In geometry
l other sciences, they draw illustrations on their slates. They illustrate the
s of mountains, the divisions of land, islands, etc. In defining an island, for
mple, they are requested to draw a representation of it. That is the course we
sue from the primary grade to the high school.

Q.—If you present a natural object to a child, and bid him go to the board and
w it, what will be the result?

A.—I am happy to say, that when we desire scholars to go to the board and draw,
y go at once. Fifteen or twenty years ago, if young ladies and gentlemen were
ed to go to the board, to work out an example, they would often be seized
h a terrific timidity. Here we do not expect pupils to hesitate, if we call upon
m to go to the board, and they do not.

Q.—Can you say, then, to all teachers in this Association, in any grade of city
ountry schools, whether they understand drawing or not, that they can have
ir pupils learn drawing to a certain extent?

A.—I have had that question asked me at county institutes. Country teachers
l say: "It will do for your classified schools, in cities, to have drawing, but how
we have it in the ungraded schools?" I meet the question, by asking, "Are
ir scholars able to make a line like this?" (making a straight line upon the
rd.) Nobody says "no," and I tell them that that is drawing, as far as it goes,
l there is nothing to do after that, but to take the next step, and go on, little by
le. If a teacher can not have this done in any ungraded school, he ought to quit
ching.

Q.—Do you require all your students to draw, or is it optional.

A.—We require every one to draw.

Q.—Do you regard such drawing as you have exhibited here to-day, a v educator of the senses and the judgment.

A.—If we did not, we would not have it; and I submit to all teachers p whether drawing an outline of Ohio, in true proportions, does not show t pupil has definite knowledge on that point? When scholars can represent th of the head, the different parts of the heart, and other vessels of the bod show that they have some definite knowledge of the subject they are stu Drawing is just as good in the natural sciences as in mathematics, whe generally used. Do not have it in one science, if not in the others.

EDITORIAL REMARKS.

——THIS number, which is double size, is exclusively devoted to th ceedings of the Ohio Teachers' Association at its late annual meeting. addresses, papers, and discussions treat of subjects of great practical ir and importance. The discussions were reported by experienced stenogra and carefully revised by the editor and, in several cases, by the speaker omitting repetitions and irrelevant remarks, the speeches have been red on an average, full one third; but, with the exception of a few necessary changes, they are given in the language of the speakers. We are sure majority of our readers will vote this number worth at least half the pr the volume.

——THE late appearance of this number, owing to its size, and the sary absence of the editor for several weeks will delay the issue of our tember number until about the 12th of the month. In addition to nearl usual variety of contributed and editorial matter, the number will cont report of proceedings of the Ohio Superintendents' Association, with densed stenographic reports of the discussions.

——THE readers of the NATIONAL TEACHER will welcome this numbe only for the valuable matter it contains, but for its presentation of the ch ter of one of the leading State Associations of the country. The Ohio T ers' Association has, we believe, no superior in the consideration of profess topics, and we know of no other Association which publishes so full and able reports of its proceedings.

——WE shall be very thankful if teachers who believe this journal w of the profession, will interest themselves in the increase of its circul A little effort will secure a club.

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

VOL. 1. SEPTEMBER, 1871. No. 12.

THE READING REFORM.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATIONAL TEACHER:

My Dear Sir: Dr. Samuel Johnson, in his "Journey to the Western Islands", speaks of a school for teaching the deaf to speak, which he visited in Edinburgh, and explains the unusually accurate spelling of the pupils by saying:

"Orthography is vitiated among such as learn first to speak, and then to write, by imperfect notions of the relation between letters and vocal utterance; but to those students every character is of equal importance; for letters are to them not symbols of names, but of things; when they write they do not represent a sound but delineate a form."

To the reality of the fact that the deaf spell well, I would bear testimony, after recent visits to the Asylum at Hartford, Conn., and to the Boston Public School for deaf mutes. At both schools the writing and spelling were remarkably good; and in Boston the success of Mr. Bell, in applying his father's "Visible Speech" to the instruction of deaf mutes in lip-reading and in audible speech, was wonderful.

The correctness of Dr. Johnson's explanation is evident; and the same principles will apply to the explanation of the "Reading Reform", which makes such slow progress among the English-speaking nations.

It is to me evident, that the teaching to spell in the ordinary method, is the principal cause of bad spelling. We begin by teaching a child its *a*, *b*, *abs*, as though our language were pho-

netically written, and then wonder that it should write *naber*, and *donut*. If we began by teaching the child to write with an accurate (39 or more letters) alphabet, or at least to read in such an alphabet, and when he could read fluently, introduce him to ordinary orthography, he would see that these new words do not represent sounds, but are the delineations of forms, and those forms would be impressed upon his memory.

We used the Cincinnati Phonotype in the public schools of this town for six or seven years, and its tendency to improve spelling was very marked. More than once I have given to the pupils of the High School indiscriminately a list of words to write, and assorted the slates into two divisions, one consisting of those belonging to children who had read phonotypy, the other to children who, coming from private schools or from other towns, had not read phonotype, and *the percentage of error was in all cases greater in this second division.*

Many phonetic or partially phonetic methods of printing have been devised, some by new alphabets, some by diacritic modifications of the old alphabet. Any one of these methods, in the hands of a good teacher, is better than the teaching of *a, b, ab.* An alphabet of distinct letters is the best, but it shocks the prejudices of people so much that no new alphabet has ever had any very extensive use. Even the Cincinnati alphabet, which we used so long here, pushes its way slowly. Dr. Edwin Leigh's Pronouncing Orthography is a very ingenious device, by which nearly all the benefits of a phonotype are obtained, with the slightest possible shock to the conservative teacher and parent. I would earnestly advise your readers to procure primers (I think that Sargent's, Hillard's, and McGuffey's can be obtained, and perhaps others) printed in pronouncing orthography; they can be used in the same class with the same primers in common orthography, and will give vastly better results.

Yours truly, THOMAS HILL.

Waltham, Mass., July 8, 1871.

PRACTICAL HINTS.—NO. VI.

BY E. O. VAILE, COLUMBUS, O.

I. "Do you believe the best teaching shows on examination?" No! I do not believe it "shows" any where. The best work teachers do, is not "show" work, and can not be made to show. It

show itself in time; but rarely, indeed, is it recognized as the
her's work. Happy is he who sees the fruits of his own
est labor. It is seed sown so deep down that life alone can
lop it.

ıere should be pity for him whose impatience for the appre-
ɔn of others, and whose weak devotion to the noblest in life
art, takes from him a needed stimulus, and leaves a crav-
for something unobtained. He would live upon the husks,
ack of faith that the future will ripen a glorious fruit. Of
ıersons, the teacher must find in his own convictions his
ıgest indorsement, and in his own conscience his highest
oval. For fear others may reap an easy harvest, he must
ail to sow, even under discouragement and disappointment.
ı, this best work of the teacher! Who can tell what it is?
sees it? Who can tell from whence it comes? It is like
lew which gathers on the leaf, even right beneath the eye;
ınobserved until it glistens in the morning light. Like the
eam, it is silent and mysterious in its influence. It comes
the unconscious virtue of a sympathizing soul, unperceived
ı "going out." Rules will not produce it, nor will it respond
ıestions, nor declare itself in heroic deeds. It works upon
exture of being. By silent absorption and secretion, it re-
ı and strengthens the fibre of motives and affections. The
ess child becomes careful; the thoughtless, thoughtful; the
lent, industrious; the low and undeveloped, man-like and
e. This "best work" is far more in the "how" than in the
at" of instruction. Its aim is wisdom, rather than knowl-
. It will show itself in the methods and sentiments of the
or woman, long after the effects of direct instruction have
ɛd away. It is produced, not by the teacher, as a teacher,
ɔy the living spirit that presides in the school-room.

It is seldom doctors give expression to exclamations of pity
isgust at the afflictions of their fellow-men. It would be
st, however, to accuse them of a want of feeling. The treat-
t of such cases is a part of their business, and they look upon
ı with a practical sense that does not waste breath in fruit-
commiseration. But where is the "practical hint" in this?
en. "Oh! dear me! That Jacob Maloney! What shall I
ıith him? He is the pest of my life." Is not that an old,
liar song? Was there ever a teacher who did not sing it?
a bad song. Sing it as little as possible. Learn from the
ors to take things as you find them, and right the wrongs

simply as a matter of careful business, and not as a personal grievance. Annoyances and vexations, of one kind or another, belong to life in every department. To learn to meet and bear them is a part of every business education. It is not consistent or prudent for a physician to be nervous or pathetic over the regular incidents of his practice; nor for a conductor to get out of patience, because passengers will ask him questions. In a sense he receives his salary as a compensation for the annoyance to which he is subjected. So a teacher should not be annoyed and fretted by the constant perplexities of the school-room. They belong to it, and ought to be anticipated as unavoidable incidents, and met accordingly. Give the matter thought as a question of business policy. Do not look upon it as a personal affliction or offense but as a case properly within the line of your profession, and which you have to treat, according to a business contract, for the ultimate good of your patient. But, while senseless and fruitless repining, on the one hand, is to be avoided, it is a great misfortune when a philosophical view of the vexations of school life becomes developed into insensibility and a contempt for them. A teacher who is callous and indifferent to the moral and mental aspects of her children, is even more unfortunate than one whose flesh is constantly filled with thorns. Possess all the milk of human charity possible; but let it flow according to sound maxims, in an undisturbed, business spirit. However, I do not forget that it is much easier to preach than to practice.

3. Do not be afraid to admit to your pupils, "I don't know." Know all you can, but do not pretend to know any more than you actually do. The old-time idea of a school-master should become extinct. It should no longer be a wonder that one head can hold so much. Such an idea gives no inspiration or stimulus to childhood. It acts in the manner of a patent right; as knowledge, by right, were the sacred property of the few. Spare no pains to show that it is no royal inheritance. Let your children often have a glimpse of the inner court of your own mind. Have no shadows there, or obstructions to their vision. Let them see your regret for your mistake, and with what care or carelessness it was made, and your anxious and faithful efforts to correct it. If you lack information, let them see the diligence and steps by which you seek to obtain it. Be, with them, an honest visitor to the Dictionary, to books of reference, and to first principles, and thus lead them to appreciate and understand a higher authority than yourself, which will be ever accessible

to them. Let them have in detail your own processes. And, depend upon it, if you are honest and thorough as you ought to be, it will effect their whole lives. If a teacher is really capable, it does no positive harm, though it may be mortifying, for his school to prove him in error. If he will show the right spirit, it will increase their respect for him, and be of great benefit to them. Having once "caught" their teacher, they will be watchful and critical, a condition distasteful only to poor and careless teachers. It makes them original and independent thinkers. They will bow to no man's mere opinion, but will prove all things—a most valuable trait, but sadly wanting. At the right time, and in the right way, it is an excellent thing for a teacher to say, "I don't know," or, "I am mistaken," to make his children his companions in his search for knowledge. While they are led to detect and distrust all pretension, in whatever quarter, they are taught to be cautious in forming and affirming their opinions. Encouraged to reason for themselves, they recognize knowledge as theirs by a title in fee simple.

SPELLING.—III.

BY W. WATKINS.

Methods: Second Reader Pupils.

The pupils, having been taught to write, and exercised in copying from the board, are now ready to copy from the book. We assign a short section of the reading lesson, and have it written upon the slates.

The first effort is almost sure to appear in an uncouth shape. We point out the errors, and encourage them to try again. When the form is satisfactory, we are ready to correct the spelling. With a damp sponge, we erase all the words which are correctly spelled, leaving only the mistakes. We have three grades: First rates—no mistakes, marked 100; second rates—one or two mistakes, marked 95 or 90; and third rates—more than two mistakes. As we correct, we place the grades in different piles. We usually have pupils able to do this work of examining and grading.

We now announce the number of "first rates," and pass the slates back to their owners with a cordial approval. We are then

ready for the "second rates"; we call each pupil, and point out his mistakes—show him that his spelling differs from that in the book, and ask him to go to his seat and correct the error by writing the word several times, separately, and reuniting the sentence in which it occurs. The errors of the "third rates" are treated in the same way, but with more care and patience. Each word missed is written many times, to fix it in the memory, to familiarize the pupil with written forms, and, most important of all, to cultivate careful, steady habits. We frequently require the words missed to be written five or ten times, and yet we do not command this as a penalty. A request is enough. Genuine work is *free* work. The pupil's mind loves freedom above all things. [This is an original discovery—patent applied for.] We can have more and far better work done without compulsion than with it.

By such careful, kind, and patient labors as these do we overcome the heedlessness of our pupils and familiarize them with the use of writing. After a time, several paragraphs may be assigned and read from the slates, encouraging fluency and excellence in style.

When the pupils can read their own writing well, let them change slates and read the lesson. Let this be some times practiced in concert. Pupils should be taught to read writing as fluently and expressively as print. This has been neglected in our schools, but it is not only desirable for its practical usefulness, but it gives exactly the kind of culture necessary to the accomplished speller.

So far, let it be observed, we have been dealing with the forms of words, as occurring in sentences. We divest spelling of its dry and technical character. Hence we do not deal with disconnected words in columns, but with sentences. When the pupil has been familiarized with the written forms of some of the most common words found in the reader, he is ready to put his knowledge into use, and, in so doing, to learn the need of more knowledge. Let him tell his teacher some thing, construct some simple sentence, and then write it down. He thus finds use for the spelling, and learns the need of more.

Now is the teacher's opportunity—the child wishes to express himself in writing, and can not do it for lack of knowledge. Now we teach him to spell the word, and our teaching is effective because opportune. It comes at the right time. We must have hunger before food. Not until we have taught the child

the use of spelling by these exercises, is the time for formal and technical exercises on columns of spelling. The columns in the reader are our review spelling lessons, the hard words to which we wish to call especial attention. It is better not to use them as written spelling lessons till the book is reviewed. Previous to that, we use them in teaching reading, pronouncing them at sight, spelling orally "on the book", etc. At the first reading, it is better to have the spelling lessons paragraphs from the reading lessons, but afterward we may use the columns as drills. We have each word thrice written in succession and brought to class. After cursory examination of slates, we have the words erased, and dictate the lesson of yesterday. After examination and correction, we spell day-before-yesterday's lesson orally. The copying thrice from the book is to teach the children the spelling, the writing from dictation is an examination into what he has learned, and the oral spelling is a review.

It is evident that there should be an interval between these processes of learning, examination, and review: one day is certainly short enough. To make spelling educative, to create a genuine, natural interest in it, and, at the same time, to furnish training and practice sufficient for the average pupil, is no easy problem. It may, however, be solved. We must combine the generous, educative spirit of Pestalozzi with the practical shrewdness of the modern business man.

Middletown, Ohio.

SCHOOL GOVERNMENT.

BY MRS. H. A. MONROE.

It is an old saying that the State is best governed which is least governed. The school is a miniature State. Doubtless the occasion of many of the trials of college students is the police-like surveillance of the faculty. Neither grown people nor children are so likely to act nobly under espionage as when thrown upon their honor. What command could have produced the effect of Nelson's famous signal: "England *expects* every man to do his duty!" Let pupils feel that their teacher trusts them, and more noble conduct will be evoked than by hedging them in by good rules.

Make plain to your pupils the connection between self-government and the government of our country, which is founded on the idea that every citizen is capable of self-government. The school-room is the place where this can be learned. By controlling the tongue, hands, feet, eyes, and even ears, pupils are doing what, in after years, will make them good citizens. Frenchmen seem to think that liberty means license, while Americans know that liberty means self-control, and the two countries are examples of the different interpretation of the word. Self-control should be the chief motto of the school-room. Every school has its leaders. Some times there will be a pupil in a school who has such bad habits on the play-ground and elsewhere that his very presence is pernicious, and yet such that the teacher finds much difficulty in reaching. If the teacher then requests one of these leaders to keep as near the offender as possible, so as not to seem officious, and influence him for good by precept and example, the erring one can generally be reclaimed. Every time the teacher makes one of these leaders feel that he is useful and helpful, he endears himself to the pupil, and if he manages all the leaders skillfully and judiciously, the other pupils will not need much direct influence.

Courtesy is a power in the school-room. Children are but small men and women, and the teacher should pay them the deference of hearing their remarks respectfully, exchanging the ordinary compliments of the day, and never unnecessarily wounding their self-love.

It has been urged against the public schools, and not without some reason, that they fail to produce ladies and gentlemen of polished manners. If more attention were paid to this matter, the matter, the objection would not only be removed, but the teacher's power of control would be enhanced. The most successful lady teachers understand this. Their commands are requests, and they never appeal in vain to the innate chivalry of even the rudest boy.

School policy is most aptly expressed by Jacob Abbot thus: "When you consent, consent cordially. When you refuse, refuse finally. When you punish, punish good naturedly. Commend often. Never scold."

Atchison, Kansas.

OHIO SUPERINTENDENTS' ASSOCIATION.

CEEDINGS OF THE ANNUAL MEETING, HELD AT SANDUSKY CITY, JULY 4TH, 1871.

› Association convened in the Sandusky High School Build-
'uesday, July 4th, 187', at 10 o'clock A.M.
› meeting was called to order by the President, A. J.
ff, of Cleveland.
› exercises were opened with prayer by R. W. Stevenson,
rwalk.
› President then delivered his Inaugural Address.
Mitchell, of Columbus, moved that a committee of three
ers be appointed, to report resolutions on that portion of
resident's Address which has reference to School Legisla-
Carried. The President appointed W. Mitchell, E. E.
, and W. D. Henkle said committee.
F. Cowdery, of Sandusky, moved that a committee of five
ers be raised to report resolutions respecting the necessity
nstitutional Amendments favoring public education in the
At the request of the Association, the President appointed
Henkle, John Hancock, J. F. Lukens, E. T. Tappan, M. R.
ews, committee.
. Mitchell, of Columbus, moved that the Association pro-
o the discussion of the following topics: State School Com-
ner, and State Board of Education. Carried. The follow-
entlemen participated in the discussion: Wm. Mitchell, E.
ppan, M. F. Cowdery, E. E. White, Wm. Watkins, John
ock, A. J. Rickoff, J. F Lukens, and T. D. Crow.
F. Cowdery, Superintendent of the Sandusky Schools, in-
the members of the Association to visit the Examination
onnected with the High School Building, and gave an ex-
tion of the purpose for which it is built.
motion, the Association adjourned to meet at 2 o'clock P.M.

Afternoon Session.

› Association was called to order by President Rickoff at 2
k.
. Mitchell, chairman of the Executive Committee, an-
ed a change in the programme, recommending that the
ittees on resolutions make their reports previous to the
ss on proficiency in branches of instruction not essential to

the study of higher branches, as a condition of promotion. The change was accepted.

The committee on resolutions respecting School Legislation, reported the following:

Resolved, That it is the firm belief of the Ohio Association of School Superintendents that there is great and urgent need of a codification of the School Laws of the State, and that the work already begun by the General Assembly, should be carried to completion.

Resolved, That the Association also approves the recommendations that have been from time to time made by the Ohio Teachers' Association and the State Commissioners of Common Schools, in reference to engrafting upon the Common School System of Ohio the following features:

1. A judicious and efficient system of County Superintendency.
2. A system of Normal Schools.
3. The adoption of the Township System of school administration.
4. An efficient system of District Normal Institutes.

R. W. Stevenson, of Norwalk, moved that the resolutions be adopted.

On motion of E. T. Tappan, the first resolution was amended by inserting after the word "codification", the words "and simplification." Carried.

Mr. Hancock, of Cincinnati, moved to strike out the fourth recommendation in the second resolution.

Mr. Harvey, of Painesville, moved to substitute the following: "An efficient system of Elementary Normal Instruction in District and County Institutes."

Mr. Hancock accepted the substitute, and, on motion of Mr. Harvey, it was adopted.

The resolutions were then adopted as amended.

Mr. Henkle, chairman of committee on resolutions on Constitutional Amendments, reported the following:

Resolved by the Ohio Association of School Superintendents, That the Constitution of the State should be so amended as to provide for an efficient State Board of Education, the Secretary of which shall be the State Commissioner of Common Schools.

Mr. Hancock moved that the resolution be adopted. Carried unanimously.

The Association then listened to an able report by A. Brown, Principal of Columbus High School, on "Proficiency in Branches not essential to the study of Higher Branches as a condition of promotion."

On motion of Mr. Harvey, the report was accepted.

The discussion of the report was opened by Wm. Mitchell, and continued by W. D. Henkle, R. W. Stevenson, Alex. Forbes,

koff, J. Hancock, W. H. Cole, W. Watkins, M. C. Stevens,
lin, J. B. Peaslee, T. W. Harvey, and E. T. Tappan.
ncock moved that that portion of the report which ad-
he requirement of an examination on all the branches
the schools, as essential to an advancement to the higher
adopted as the sentiment of the Association.
kkoff moved that the subject be laid upon the table.

vdery continued the discussion.
rvey moved that the subject be laid upon the table.

by M. F. Cowdery that a committee be appointed to
officers for the ensuing year. M. F. Cowdery, Wm.
and Daniel Worley were named as the committee to
officers.
ıed to meet at 8 o'clock P. M.

Evening Session.

eting convened at 8 o'clock, and was called to order by
lent.
ımittee appointed to nominate officers made the follow-
, which was unanimously adopted:
ıt—R. W. Stevenson, Norwalk.
esident—J. F. Lukens, Kent.
y—G. W. Walker, Lima.
e Committee—S. G. Williams, Cleveland; John B. Peas-
ınati; John Bolton, Portsmouth; A. T. Wiles, Zanes-
H. Cole, Wilmington.
F. DeWolf, announced to report on "The Relation of
ndents to Teachers", not being present, A. T. Wiles, of
, was called to open the discussion of the subject of the

cussion was continued by John Hancock, W. D. Hen-
Mitchell, W. C. Catlin, M. F. Cowdery, E. O. Vaile, W.
W. H. Cole, J. F. Lukens, E. E. White, Mr. Loomis, Mr.
and A. J. Rickoff.
tion adjourned to meet at the call of the Executive
e.

G. A. CARNAHAN, *Secretary.*

INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS.

BY PRESIDENT RICKOFF.

Gentlemen of the Ohio State Association of Superintendents:

Had it been made my duty to addrsss you at any other point in the programme of the day, I would have peremptorily refused to discharge the duty assigned me. As it is, I must beg the indulgence of all of you, who know very well the duties of a superintendent of schools at this season of the year.

Our meeting to-day, and the meetings which are to follow it this week, will probably be more important than any that have occurred for many years past. We shall have to take into consideration the reasons of an almost total failure to obtain any very important or generally useful legislation, in behalf of our public school system, for the last eighteen or twenty years. Since the passage of that law by which the office of State Commissioner of Common Schools was established, saving perhaps one law by which an attempt was made to unite the districts of the township into a consolidated township district, nothing has been done by our State Legislature, which could be supposed to affect the vital interests of the common schools of the State. For the last nine years we have been working for three things. In the first place, our State Commissioner, Mr. White, ably and persistently presented the claims of normal schools. According to instructions, he made a special report to the Legislature on that subject. Another Commissioner came into his place, and it seemed to him that the greatest need of the schools of the State was a county superintendency. With the aid of the Governor of the State, and other influential officials of the State, he struck boldly for that. But he failed, as his predecessor had done, and to-day we have neither a normal school nor a county superintendency. Finally, last winter our present Commissioner, in despair of obtaining really progressive legislation, addressed himself to the codification of the school laws, and one would think that every man in the State, who had ever had any thing to do with the management of schools for the last ten or fifteen years, would certainly appreciate the necessity of that; but again we failed. Every other human interest has received its due share of attention, it would seem by the large volumes of laws annually printed as the winter's grist of "Acts of the Legislature of Ohio." Other States in the meantime have done for their schools what we have so long in vain prayed our Legislature to do. East, west, north and south of us, with very few exceptions, they have normal schools, county superintendents and school laws which it is safe to say contain fewer conflicting provisions than our own.

I say that no important work has been done in school legislation. The fact is, that if we take the legislation of the State altogether for the last eighteen years, except that one attempt to consolidate, after a fashion, the schools into a township district, I do sincerely believe that it has been adverse to the interests of the common school system. Eighteen years ago we had a library law by which it was attempted to establish a library in every township of the State. Whether the attempt was judicious or judiciously made is doubtful, but it indicated a progressive spirit. From that day to this, what has been done by our

Legislature to show that it has really had the interests of our public schools at heart?

It seems to me that the people of this State, even the educated classes, have looked only to the Ohio State Teachers' Association, and other organizations of teachers, to take the lead in every important matter bearing upon the interests of the public schools. The people of the State—I ought perhaps to say that even the members of the Legislature, who have been willing and anxious to do some thing for the cause of education—have looked to the active and professional educators of the State to say what they should do, or rather what was most necessary to be done, and what they have represented to be necessary, has uniformly been attempted. But the good and true men of our Legislature, who have been able to look beyond party politics to the real, vital interests of the people, have been unable to secure the legislation desired.

Now, I don't suppose we have erred very greatly in the way in which we have tried to secure progressive school legislation in this State—not, at least, as men ordinarily look upon such things. It may be that we erred when we abandoned the effort which had been inaugurated to secure normal schools. It may be, but all of you will bear witness how earnestly and persistently, for the last six years, we have begged for a county superintendency; and this, too, after every superintendent of schools, School Commissioner, or Secretary of State, whose duty it had been to report annually upon the condition of the common schools, for the last quarter of a century, had unanimously testified to its necessity. Yet to-day we seem to be as far from the realization of our hopes as we were twenty years ago, and I don't know but a little farther.

Though unwilling to confess to any serious mistake hitherto in our management of the case, yet because we have uniformly failed I am willing to try still another plan. I would suggest that we represent to the Legislature the condition of the common schools of the State, and lay before it a list of the things which are necessary to be done, and press them for attention by petitions, memorials, and in every way by which legislative bodies may be legitimately approached or influenced. I would press them all for consideration, and with every argument which could be adduced in their favor, and I wonld then ask the Senate and House of Representatives to give us all or any one of them at their pleasure. I would, however, give them fair notice that on their granting any one of the measures, the rest of them would be demanded no less earnestly and persistently than before. Two at least of them are necessary, nay, indispensable to the growth and development of our school system. Without them the school system of this State, for the support of which more than seven millions of dollars are now annually expended, will become a disgrace rather than an honor, for it will not be judged by the sacrifices which the people make to sustain it, but it will be judged by its usefulness as compared with the usefulness of the systems of other States, which shall in the mean time continue to provide for the special education of its teachers, and for the efficient supervision of their work.

These two things I name first, without giving precedence to either. Superintendence will not enable a large manufacturing establishment to dispense with skilled laborers, nor will skilled laborers obviate the necessity of efficient

foremen. Normal schools and county superintendence are both indispensable, and let the Legislature give us either, we will not cease to ask for the other.

But we need more than one, two, three or four normal schools. We must have a system of normal institutes which shall be adapted to the wants of different classes of teachers, and reach every county, township and district of the State. For teachers whose education is sufficient for the demands of the country schools, we need institutes embracing several counties; for teachers whose scientific and literary qualifications are deficient, we need the county institute as it is now conducted. This subject has been ably discussed before this Association by Mr. White, but it needs to receive yet further attention.

We ought to have a codification of our school laws, and I hope that Mr. Henkle will have an opportunity to bring this subject more fully before the Association.

There is one thing upon which we would not now insist, but to which it would be well to give some attention. I do not think it would be judicious for us to ask of the Legislature that education be made compulsory, nor do I think it would be wise for the Legislature, at this time, to attempt it. There is, however, one thing which the Legislature may safely do. It may enable the City Councils of Cincinnati, Cleveland, Dayton, Columbus, Toledo, Norwalk and other cities and towns, to direct their police to see that the children of school age be not allowed to play in the streets during school hours—that they be required to be at home under the protection of their parents, at school, or, if old enough, at some honest employment. The authorities of the cities and towns might, at their discretion, avail themselves of this power, and thereby prevent much of the juvenile crime that so easily develops into the more serious crimes of manhood. The local authorities might at least be empowered, through their police force, to secure the attendance of children at school who absent themselves in spite of their parents' wishes. Widowed mothers, and parents of both sexes, who have lost the control of their children—I believe there are such—might avail themselves of the assistance of the police to make them go to school when sent. Such aid would be valuable to the teacher, and would be easily practicable in this way. The name of such a child being entered upon the register of the school, he would be held to be "due to the school," and, on occasion of absence, the teacher might readily inform the policeman of the district of the fact, it being his duty to bring the child into school on such notice. The child still found to be incorrigible, would be a fit subject for a House of Refuge or a Reform Farm.

Under the head of school legislation, then, we need the county superintendency and the normal school, with normal institutes of various grades; we need a codification and revision of the school laws, and in the direction of compulsory education, such provision as will clear the streets of our cities of the idle and vagrant children that now infest them, or at least such as will enable parents to compel their children to go to school in case that they be not able to do so by the exercise of their own parental authority.

It is proposed that a State Convention shall soon be called for the revision of our State Constitution. I mention it here that we may be prepared for it,

ıd that we may carefully consider whether we have any thing to ask of such Convention.

It would certainly seem to be right to ask that the State Commissioner of mmon Schools be made a constitutional officer. The existence of the ce now depends upon the will of the Legislature. It may be abolished at ' time by a vote of a majority of the Senate and House of Representatives. ıre is anotber thing which it seems to me would be desirable to work for, that is a State Board of Education. Such a Board, properly constituted having ample powers conferred upon it by the State Constitution, would ın efficient agency in the administration of the school system. Greater diness would thereby be secured in the policy of the Commissioner, a g which it is now impossible to secure. This would certainly be the case is Board were made the electors of the Commissioner.

he Executive Committee has provided, in its programme, for the discussion ubjects which belong specifically to this Association, and I have called ' attention to the matters of which I have spoken, that they may be oughly discussed.

DISCUSSION OF THE PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS.

ON. W. D. HENKLE: I believe both parties have agreed with regard to holding a titutional convention. If that convention shall assemble, ought it to make any ıges in the utterances of the Constitution in reference to the schools? I agree the president that the State Commissioner of Common Schools should be made ıstitutional officer. An attempt to abolish the office may come up at any time, therefore, I think it important that that element of discord should be taken out he General Assembly. I am also in favor of having the fundamental law pro- for a State Board of Education, and, if I should refer to the details, I should that the members of this board should have their terms of office so fixed that not ı than one-third of them should go out every year. One thing more I want to w out—I do not know how it will strike you—and that is that the State Commis- er of Common Schools should be selected by the State Board of Education, for a ı of four years. This could be done either on the nomination of the Governor the approval of the State Board of Education, or it could be done without any 'ence to such nomination. There is a case now in the Supreme Court with 'ence to the reading of the Bible in the public schools of the State. I should r putting into the state constitution utterances on this subject so distinct that e would not be any room for litigation. Of course, whatever goes into the con- ıtion must be in few words, and but few details can be mentioned.

M. MITCHELL, Columbus: Those who reside at Columbus, or near there, and are nd the scenes, have observed a tendency, for some several sessions, to interfere ı and sometimes to abolish the office of State School Commissioner. I have ed with members of the Legislature, who were more than half in favor of abol- ng the office, and who did not give it full credit for what it does. This office ıld be made as secure against any such danger from the Legislature as that of litor of State or Governor. This would greatly increase the moral power of the e, and it would seem, what it really is, an indispensable part of the government. can no more dispense with public schools than we can with the elective fran- ıe, and the system must be a part of the state policy. There are other considera- ıs for having this office made a constitutional one, and I think the term should increased to four years. There are many things to be learned in this position,

and it takes the Commissioner from one to two years to get all the machinery in running order. We also need greater permanency in the supervisory office in our cities and towns. If superintendents were elected for a longer time, it would be a great improvement.

M. F. COWDERY: I heartily assent to the suggestions made and the reasons assigned for this change. I can easily understand that such things as have occurred in the Legislature in the past, are likely to occur in the future, and I hope that this office will be recognized in the constitution.

E. T. TAPPAN: If we are going to ask the people of Ohio to give up the power of electing the Commissioner of Schools, we should give some good reason for it, and I believe that there is a good reason. We have reached a point in this country when it is no longer blasphemous to say that the voice of the people may not be the voice of God. We are looking more deeply into questions, and are asking for the best way. What is the best way of choosing this officer? The State Commissioner's office is an important one, but it is more important that we should have a good man in it. The office may be worth little or nothing, if the right man does not fill it. While I am radically a democrat, in the right sense of that word, I think the people are not the right persons to select this officer, and for the reason that the office is a *professional one*, and the man who fills it should be a professional teacher, one who understands the business because he has learned it practically as well as theoretically. If this be admitted, it follows that this officer should be chosen by men who are judges of such qualifications. Whether this shall be done by a State Board of Education, or by some other select body of men, I shall not now discuss. I only insist that the office be made a constitutional one, and that the officer be chosen in a way that will secure the best man.

E. E. WHITE: I am not prepared to give an opinion respecting one feature of the change proposed, viz: the organization of a State Board of Education, but I fully agree with those who have urged the importance of making the office of State School Commissioner a constitutional office. I will add a reason to those given by the speakers who have preceded me. The present inadequate salary of the office is due to the fact that it is not named in the Constitution. When the salary bill of 1865 (I believe) was presented to the General Assembly, it included only the constitutional officers. A bill to increase the School Commissioner's salary in like ratio was subsequently reported, but, standing alone, it failed, and the best action that could be secured was an increase from $1,500 to $2,000. Had the office been a constitutional one, it would have been provided for in the salary bill, and we should not be losing experience in the office from the want of adequate pay.

I am not so strongly in favor of the appointment of this officer as I was several years ago. I am not sure that there is not about as much political scheming in the appointment of men to office, both state and national, as in their nomination and election by the people. Professional ability stands about as good a chance of recognition in a political convention as it does by the present appointing power. If the appointment were intrusted to a State Board of Education, as has been suggested, this would remove it from undue political influence, and we should be likely to secure the ripest professional experience, and also greater permanency.

In 1862 or 1863, there was a movement in the General Assembly to abolish this office, and a bill was reported, which was defeated. Since that time I have observed no such disposition. For years past, I have not heard an intelligent man express a doubt respecting the usefulness of the office, and I think there is no danger that the movement referred to will be renewed. But while there may be no need of a recognition of this office in the constitution to *preserve* it, I think such recognition would give it increased dignity, influence, and success.

I would ask whether the history of State Boards of Education leads to the conclu-ion that they are an important agency. How do Illinois, Pennsylvania, and other tates which have no such agency, compare with those States which have? In hich is the State School Department most efficient? I would like to hear this mat-r more fully discussed.

WM. WATKINS, of Middletown: I think we are all in favor of greater permanency the educational councils of our state; of a constitutional recognition of the lucational Department; of a State Board of Education; of peace and harmony on is vexed religious question in the common schools. On these things, I think, we all not differ, but the difficulties under which we labor ground themselves, I think, on a most singular apathy of the people at large respecting the educational work. do not propose, however, to enter upon the chapter of Lamentations, but merely state that, if it is desirable to attain any reform in school legislation, we must ke hold of political influences, and, to do this, it becomes us to use all the circum-ection we can. We must show ourselves worthy of the confidence of the wisest d best. If we condescend to deal with any such clap-trap as we have sometimes ed in considering this question, we may bid good-by to every hope of obtaining form, much less any special constitutional measures like those proposed.

JOHN HANCOCK, of Cincinnati: I agree thoroughly with the last speaker with re-ard to the gravity of this occasion. We have in anticipation not only the move-ent for a new constitution of the State, but, as it seems to me, we have also to go ck again to the very foundation upon which the public school system rests. At-cks have been made on our school system upon grounds that go to its very founda-on. It may be that we shall have to argue this whole ground over again, and it erefore seems to me that this is a time for grave utterances.

It seems to me that our state educational system will always lack in unity unless be thoroughly organized; and to give unity to the system is to give it power. hat has been done for education has been largely done by individual effort. Had ot the teachers of Ohio taken hold of this great educational system, and borne it p with their united hands, it seems to me it would long since have fallen, for all at our Legislature have felt disposed to do for it. It seems to me that a State oard of Education would not only give dignity to the system, but it would also ive it desired unity. One Commissioner, without any assistance, can do but a part f the labor required. We want a State Board of Education. We want also a State ommissioner who shall be a power; for, under any circumstances, he would, in ome sense, be the Board, with its members to give him power and to give dignity to is decisions.

As to the election of the School Commissioner, that is a question which should not e decided hastily. The elective franchise is in itself a great educational power. ou can not go back of the people for any power. They are the final tribunal to hich we have always to refer every question, and they are to be educated by think-ng upon these questions and by voting upon them. I have no doubt that if the people of Ohio knew, or had the means of knowing, who was the wisest and ablest an for State School Commissioner, that man would be chosen almost by unani-mous vote. But they have no means of knowing this, and that is the difficulty. I am undecided at present as to which is the better plan: the election of the Commis-sioner by the people as now, or the transfer of his election to a State Board of Edu-cation. If the people were wise enough, I should certainly prefer the present plan: and I do not know but that the exercise of the power may, in the end, educate the people, and thus be more beneficial than the other course.

M. C. STEVENS, of Salem: I would like to know how this State Board is to be con-stituted—how it is to be created, whether by the people or by appointment?

THE PRESIDENT: We might elect from four districts of the State, or one from every senatorial district, or one from every national representative district, or one from every judicial district. There are various modes by which such a Board of Education might be elected by popular voice, and I would respectfully submit whether in such a board of education, elected for the State precisely as we elect our boards of education in the cities, the cause of education would not be safe. In one of our cities, at least, the subject of politics has not shown itself in this matter, and certainly not in our large cities until recently. But it may possibly be better to avoid the Scylla at the very commencement, by giving the nomination of the members to the Governor and the election to the Legislature. Or the Board might be constituted as in the State of Indiana, the superintendents of certain cities being members of that board.

J. F. LUKENS, of Kent: I would ask whether it is proposed to give this State Board any legislative power?

T. D. CROW, of Columbus; I indorse most heartily all that has been said with regard to the importance of the educational head of Ohio schools, whether this head is vested in a State Board, or in the single officer, the State School Commissioner. I agree that the term of office of School Commissioner might perhaps well be lengthened to four years, but I would scarcely turn over my hand between two years and four years. I think the people are the best judges to decide who shall be their School Commissioner. I do not like these political conventions very well in all respects; but I would rather, after all, trust the people in this matter of choosing their own officers. There was a time in Ohio when it was thought entirely unsafe to have judges selected by the people, and from the Supreme Bench down to the Common Pleas, they were appointed. I believe that the judiciary of Ohio now stands as high in the estimation of the people of all the States as any we have ever had. Shall we say that the people are competent to choose judges, but that they are incompetent to choose their State School Commissioner, or superintend the schools for their children?

Let me observe that there is more growth in the schools among the people than there is in the Department in Columbus. The system has gone ahead of what is found in the statute book.

E. T. TAPPAN: If the election of School Commissioner were on a separate day, when the people could give attention to the subject, disconnected from party politics, we might have a proper selection; but we must look at things as they are. The Commissioner is now nominated by a party convention, and is elected with from ten to a dozen other candidates. The people may be wise and honest, and yet, under this plan, they may fail to select the best man. Reference has been made to the judiciary. Our judges were formerly elected by the Legislature—the worst of all methods. The best set of judges ever elected in Ohio were chosen at the first election when the attention of the people was concentrated on this matter, and when the election of a judge is held on a separate day and the people come together solely to elect a judge, the best selections, as a general rule, are made. It is impossible to get a separate election for Commissioner, and the best way is to have the appointment made by a board created for the purpose in some careful manner. It is a settled fact that we are to have such an officer in Ohio, and the most important thing is to select the best man.

E. E. WHITE: The wise selection of the judges of Ohio is due to the fact that the profession of law is largely represented in the conventions that make the nominations. The opinion of lawyers, on the ground, determines who is to be the candidate for Supreme Judge. If the educational men of Ohio were in like manner represented in the conventions of both parties making nominations for Commissioner,

ifficulty would be largely overcome. If we wish te secure the nomination of or this office in whom we have confidence, we must be at the nominating con-n, and exert our influence. Geography out of the question—which is well nigh otent in a political convention—the best man will be nominated if the conven-nows who the best man is.

F. COWDERY: The part the people take in this matter is illustrated by the ır in which one of our churches here solves the question of woman suffrage. It the women to vote on all matters, but their votes are not counted!

REPORT OF COMMITTEE ON SCHOOL LEGISLATION.

[For resolutions, see page 488.]

'. COWDERY: I feel confident that these resolutions will meet the views of a ty of those present, and, without desiring to be captious, I wish to say, give most intelligent supervision that we can have, as the *first* measure. If others and act differently, I shall not go into the ranks of the opposition. In the of a few years' experience in the work, and associated with teachers of s grades and degrees of experience, I feel very great assurance that supervi-omes first in the order of importance in carrying forward school matters. gent teachers need a guiding head and the counsel of a superintendent to he system uniform.

HANCOCK: I have some doubts as to the desirableness of district normal ıtes, though I have no doubt as to their value. I very much fear that their shment may seriously interfere with the efficiency of the county institutes, are doing a noble normal work. Whatever may be the action of the Legisla-ı regard to normal schools, the county institutes must always do the greater in educating the teachers of Ohio. We can only reach the great body of rs through these institutes, and I would not do any thing to impair their ıcy. They are growing constantly in strength and usefulness. Counties that ıot had them before are coming into line every year, and the institutes are ng themselves more and more to instruction in methods. The institute funds nerally sufficient to employ one, and sometimes more, experienced institute ctors; and it is more convenient for teachers to attend a county institute than ·ict institute.

V. HARVEY: I believe that the county institutes are doing a good work, but a well-trained corps of institute instructors be put into the field, much and better work would be done. Several counties in the State do not ıstitutes because they can not secure instructors that will be acceptable to the rs. We ought to have a corps of institute iustructors to organize and hold ıtes where good institutes can not now be held.

. WHITE: I was was a little surprised to hear Mr. Hancock express a fear that ɜm of district normal institutes might interfere with our present county insti-On the contrary, it seems to me that efficient normal institutes would increase he value and the attendance of the county institutes. What we need in Ohio omplete system of professional instruction for the teachers of our schools. ıl schools would do a great work, but they could not directly reach all the ·rs of the State.

e five thousand new teachers are employed in Ohio each year, and it is ıt that no system of normal schools which we can secure, will turn out annually ousand teachers. Hence normal schools must be supplemented by other nor-

mal agencies which will reach a much greater number of teachers. The county institutes have capacity to reach every teacher in the State, but their sessions are too brief adequately to meet the professional wants of a large class of teachers. Between the normal school and the county institute, there is a place for a class of professional schools, less comprehensive than the former and more professional and thorough than the latter. These normal institutes, with sessions of four to six weeks, with competent instructors, and under good management, would meet the professional needs of many teachers. As models of normal training, they would greatly improve the character of the instruction in our county institutes. The normal institutes held in Indiana, a few years since, greatly improved the county institutes. The instructors in these normal institutes should be paid by a state appropriation.

MR. HANCOCK: Suppose that two or three counties, as Brown, Clermont and Warren, are united to form a normal institute district; would not the holding of an institute of six weeks therein make it impossible to hold a county institute in each county the same summer? Those most interested would go to the district institute, and, as they can not very well attend two institutes, the county institute would fall into the hands of the least experienced. I believe that county institutes were not held the same season in those sections of Indiana in which the State Norml Institutes were held. This is the point I had in mind, and the only one.

J. H. ROLFE, of Chicago, Ill.: We are engaged in Ilfinois in codifying our school laws, but it is thought by some that it will be utterly impossible to secure as good a school law after its codification as we now have. One of our most intelligent county superintendents, who has examined the committee's bill, says that he thinks it embraces all the bad features of the law as it now exists, with the addition of still more objectionable features. It is not always the best course to attempt to codify the school laws of a State. One word more. I have great faith in county supervision, and were Illinois to give up normal schools or county supervision, I would prefer to give up normal schools. One defect of our system of supervision in Illinois is that there is not enough of it to meet the wants of the schools.

W. WATKINS: In the present state of the school question in Ohio, I should hesitate to ask any Legislature to undertake a codification of our school laws. My fear is that the work would not stop with codification. I would, however, like to see the laws of Ohio codified, without modification. The result would be a wonder to the natives. A member of the last Legislature says there are sixteen contradictions in the laws which relate to one matter!

W. MITCHELL: I understand that the committee recommends simply the embodiment in one act of all the provisions of the school laws of Ohio now in force, for the plain and explicit direction of school affairs. This would work no change in school policy—would add no new features, and would leave out none. It would be a simplification, but no modification. It would reduce to practical use all the varied and contradictory legislation which we now have, and would permit a decision on one point without running counter to some other provision in the law.

MR. HANCOCK: Pardon me for saying one word more. I am not afraid to press the Legislature to make necessary changes in the school law. Simple codification will not reach the point we have in view. The bill reported last winter contains several important modifications that would very much add to the efficiency of the school system. I want some change. I believe that the Legislature is disposed to improve the school system, provided such improvement will not cost anything. There are several modifications of this kind, and I hope the next Legislature will take needed action.

HOOL COMMISSIONER HENKLE: It is impossible to codify the school laws without ge. It requires a series of changes to put the different laws into one. The ol system for Ohio is peculiar. There are special laws not only for such cities ncinnati and Cleveland, but for several small cities and towns. There is a special or Perry township, Stark county, which includes Massillon. Several districts t know what law they are under! Moreover, the amendments to the general re frequently made applicable to districts "organized under law of the State", o the districts under special laws, the Akron law, or the law of '49, have to the general legislation. This is the muddle, and it may be remarked that this sion existed prior to the creation of the office of School Commissioner. The al school law was not a complete revision and codification of all the school laws existing. Most of the legislation since 1853 has been patch-work, done to cor- lefects, and sometimes to please the fancy of some member of the General ably. Most of these bad amendments have been rushed through against the st of the School Commissioner. In putting these laws together, there must be lification. Cincinnati has a school board of forty-four members, Cleveland fif- one from each ward, Toledo seven, a part serving for three years and a part for ears. Dayton, by a peculiar arrangement, is under the general law, and has no board of examiners. In putting these laws together, something must be given The General Assembly passed a resolution requesting me not to issue a new n of the school laws, because it was expected that this codification would be next winter. It failed last winter, simply because of a little flurry on the col- question. Some of the men who voted against the bill, were the warmest ds of it.

FICIENCY IN BRANCHES NOT ESSENTIAL TO THE STUDY OF HE HIGHER BRANCHES AS A CONDITION OF PROMOTION.*

BY A. BROWN, COLUMBUS, OHIO.

the discussion of this question, it is necessary, first, to determine what ches of study may be regarded as higher; what as essential and non- ntial to the study of the higher.

s courses of study are now usually arranged, the studies pursued in the School, excepting English grammar, may be regarded as higher branches. he grades below the High School, reading, writing, arithmetic, English mmar, geography, and United States history are usually taught, and pro- ncy in all these branches is generally required before a pupil can be ad ed to the higher grade. A thorough knowledge of the three "R's" and graphy is demanded and a fair knowledge of the other two branches; and s it impossible for a pupil to pursue the higher branches unless he is thor- ly acquainted with all the above mentioned studies? Is not a thorough wledge of the first three, reading, writing, and arithmetic, all that is really ssary? What more does a pupil need to study mathematics, or the sciences, tal, moral, or physical, or for the study of the ancient or modern languages, ory, rhetoric, or even logic? Doubtless a knowledge of English grammar

* A report read before the Ohio Superintendents' Association, July 4, 1871.

is an aid to the study of any branch, but it is by no means absolutely essential; neither is a previous knowledge of geography necessary to the study of history. Therefore, of the branches taught in grades below the High School, reading, writing, and arithmetic may be regarded as the essential branches; geography, English grammar, United States history the non-essential.

Doubtless some will take exception to this classification, and yet it seems to me that every fair-minded man or woman who is an intelligent reader, a good writer, and a thorough arithmetician, can become the master of any of the higher branches of learning.

If, then, the higher branches can be pursued without the knowledge of English grammar, geography, and United States history, shall we make proficiency in them a condition of promotion? In many respects a knowledge of the branches of study that have been characterized as non-essential is as important as that of the essential branches. In professional life, to lawyers, doctors, ministers, and teachers some knowledge of these studies is necessary. It is no less important in many departments of business. On this point there is no necessity for argument. A man engaged in commerce must have at least a practical knowledge of geography, the clergymen of grammar, the lawyer of history, and the teacher a thorough understanding of all three. In truth, a practical knowledge of these branches of study should be had by every one.

There is another reason why a pupil should be thoroughly grounded in all the elementary branches, both those that have been called the essential and non-essential. Would you call a man properly educated who had no scientific or systematic knowledge of English grammar and geography, even if he were a master in all the higher branches of learning? It may be true that reading, writing, and arithmetic are the chief corner-stones in the foundation of the intellectual structure, but all the elementary branches are necessary that the foundation may be complete. As the Hon. E E. White has well said:

"Thoroughness in the common branches of study is the basis upon which alone a higher education can be successfully built. To plaster over an indifferent or superficial elementary scholar with a thin coating of geology, geometry, chemistry, and astronomy, after the manner of those who convert wooden houses into stone, and then call it a higher education, is a serious sham."

It is worse even than that: it is supremely ridiculous.

Unless the foundation is complete and firmly laid, the superstructure, though outwardly imposing and beautiful, can not and will not stand the test. For this reason alone, if there were no other, proficiency in all the elementary branches should be demanded as a condition of promotion. As a pupil advances there are other studies, the knowledge of which is not essential to the study of the other higher branches; and yet all will admit that some knowledge of them is at least desirable.

Since, then, a knowledge of the non-essential branches is of a practical value, and a knowledge of all the common branches is the only basis upon which a higher education can be successfully built, the youth of this land must in some way be induced to obtain it. How shall it be done? There are two ways. Make proficiency in them a condition of promotion, and moral suasion. Moral suasion, in theory, is well enough, but, in practice, in many cases it fails to accomplish the desired object. Adopt the moral-suasion plan in this case,

› non-essential branches of study become optional. This must follow,
cease to be a part of the curriculum—a proposition that must not be
d. Make these branches of study optional, how many, think you, of
› and girls of this State will spend their time learning them? A few
study them voluntarily, a few would be persuaded by teachers and
, but a majority would not study them. Their argument would be:
ll, if we must; but, if we need not, we won't."
aps some may say I underrate the desire of the American people for
ɛ, and yet how frequently teachers hear both pupils and parents say:
is the use of this or that study?" "Can't you excuse my daughter from
ɛ this one branch?" No; we must not rely upon moral suasion, or de-
knowledge. If we do, many of our pupils will grow up almost entirely
t of the three important branches that have been styled the non-essen-
; is astonishing what ignorance both pupils and teachers exhibit even
n Italy in a recent examination, candidates for the higher institution of
ɛ, showed themselves disgracefully ignorant of the common branches.
nes of the rivers of their own country were applied to cities, the names
› to rivers, and both to men.
chigan superintendent reports that, while examining some candidates
hers' certificates, he learned that Franklin was by birth a Frenchman;
› this country during the Revolutionary war, and afterward was Presi-
The mild climate of Oregon was accounted for as follows: "The Atlan-
t has a gulf stream running from the Arctic Ocean into the Gulf of
As Oregon has not, making the difference in climate; also the
ins on the Atlantic Coast." This theory of the genesis of mountains
advantage of being new, if no other. The startling fact that the Nile
the northern part of Africa, and flows south, through Egypt and Nubia,
into Abyssinia, was also disclosed. In English grammar, the exam-
covered that a neuter verb was one without sex.
› examples show that the danger is not in the future: it is all around us
nd if we make the study of English grammar, geography and United
history optional, this sad state of things will be growing worse and
vhile if proficiency in them is demanded, rigidly demanded, as a condi-
promotion, this unaccountable ignorance would not long prevail.
› may argue: The schools are public, supported by the public money,
very tax-payer has the right to dictate what his children shall study.
his, and all system is at an end. The only sure and safe way is to
ır and reasonable course of study, and then make proficiency, both in
›s essential and not essential to the study of the higher branches, the
›n of promotion.
I believe, is the correct principle for all preparatory schools—for
ies, for one-horse colleges, and for high schools. In these institutions,
ly, the pupils are too young and inexperienced to choose what branches
ght to pursue. It must be done for them, and the more rigid and thor-
ıe course, the better, keeping in mind their age and mental capacity.
of the principal objects of preparatory schools is to train and discipline
d, and to teach the pupil how to use it to the best advantage. A very

important work—a work that requires a thorough course of instruction and the most skillful workmen. For this reason, there should be no lowering of the standard.

There is still another reason why proficiency in a less number of branches should not be demanded.

The manner in which most of our colleges are conducted is radically wrong. There is hardly an institution in this country, where we boast of the greatest freedom, both in thought and action, in which the student can elect his studies. All are put into the same hopper, the mill begins to grind, and in four years they are ground out. This is radically wrong. A learned man is said to be one that knows a little of every thing and a great deal of some thing. But when a young man leaves almost any one of the colleges of this country, with the degree of Bachelor of Arts in his pocket, he knows a little of a great many things, but a great deal of nothing. The recent graduates are smatterers in all departments of knowledge, and proficient in none. It is not their fault, however. It is the fault of their Alma Maters, and there must be, and is to be, a radical change. The danger here is not in radicalism, but in conservatism. Radicalism is our salvation. The students of our *real* colleges and *real* universities must have greater liberty. They must be allowed to select the departments of knowledge they have a taste for, and then be compelled to take only those branches that are necessary to make them masters in the department they have chosen. If a student has a taste for the natural sciences, he should devote his time and attention to them and their kindred branches; or, if for Latin and Greek, his time should be devoted to Latin and Greek, instead of undertaking to learn them and everything else in a four years' course. The accomplishment of such an undertaking is an impossibility. But in four years, after having had a thorough preparation, a man can, if he is industrious, make himself worthy of the degree of Bachelor of Science, of Bachelor of Language, or of any one department of knowledge. To be a bachelor of everything is a very different matter.

The change which I have imperfectly indicated, in the manner of conducting the higher institutions of learning, will, sooner or later, be brought about; and it will demand the most thorough preparatory schools—so thorough that when a pupil completes the course of study in them, he will be able to decide what line of thought is most agreeable to him, and, with industry and energy, to become an adept in it. At present the public schools do not do this: and yet is there any reason why they should not? It can not be done by lowering the standard, and the superintendents and teachers should exert their influence against any tendency to bring about so undesirable a result. On the other hand, they should endeavor to make the course of study in our public schools so thorough and comprehensive that our children will be able to go directly from them to a university where they will have the privilege of electing their own studies. It may be true that this can not be done immediately, but gradually the people can be educated up to it.

Ohio's position is second to no other state, hence her example, especially in the matter of education, should be as near perfection as possible. She has now a very excellent system of common schools so far as it goes; but it is

incomplete; it has no capstone. In fact, although Ohio has many institutions of learning that have done and are now doing a great deal of good, yet she has not an institution in which a man can obtain a first-class higher education This is the great defect in her educational system. It, however, can be remedied, and the influence of this association, and every other educational association in the State, should be exerted to remedy it just as soon as it is practicable. It can not be done, however, by making proficiency in a less number of branches the condition of promotion. We must first establish a university in the truest sense of the term, and then raise the standard in the public schools, so that a pupil having completed the course of study in the High School, in which proficiency in all branches, whether essential or non-essential, is demanded, shall be well qualified to master thoroughly any branch of learning he may select. Then Ohio will have a complete system of education —a system that any State, new or old, would do well to copy.

DISCUSSION OF MR. BROWN'S PAPER.

HON. W. D. HENKLE: I am not sure that I agree with Mr. Brown as to the classification of the essential and non-essential branches. In one sense, all the studies are non-essential, and in another sense they are all more or less essential. I do not see that a knowledge of arithmetic, except the barest elements of numbers, is essential to the study of mental philosopy and moral philosophy, and I am not sure that a knowledge of square root is necessary to a knowledge of Latin roots.

A knowledge of language, not technical grammar, is essential to the prosecution of any of the higher studies, and I think a certain amount of geography is essential. When you select certain higher branches, algebra, for instance, then there is a certain knowledge of arithmetic necessary for the study of algebra. I do not see that writing is essential to the study of the higher branches, absolutely indispensable; because men in our blind institutions study these higher branches without having learned to write. In fact, I don't know any thing about it. [Laughter.]

ALEXANDER FORBES: It seems to me that while a pupil ought not to be promoted without a clear and intelligent idea of that which he has studied, and of the principles involved, it is not necessary that he should be able to make intricate applications of the principles. Those will come to him by and by, without any further instruction upon the subject. Difficult sentences may be presented to a child for analysis and parsing, and he may be rejected for his ignorance, and yet Richard Grant White is praised for saying that there is no such thing as English grammar. There ought to be a little justice in this matter. A child ought not to be condemned because he does not know what educators say is not true.

With regard to all these branches, a clear comprehension of the more elementary principles is all that is necessary to enable the child to go on to those that lie next above. It is thoroughness in elementary principles, and not in their applications, which is the true principle of promotion. We find children who can never solve problems in arithmetic, but who can easily understand language, and who can write a beautiful letter. They should not be kept back year after year because they are unable to master arithmetic or some other study.

JOHN HANCOCK: I believe transfers are usually made upon the pupil's general average, and not upon any special study, and I like to have pupils examined upon *all* the branches required to be taught. The difficulty of leaving out some of the branches was very well noticed in the address. In the Cincinnati schools, no

account was formerly taken of German in the transfers, and the result was that all the energies of the teachers and of the pupils were devoted to those branches which were included, and hence the work in German was very imperfect. So in regard to drawing. When we made transfers without any examination in drawing, only those pupils who had a taste for that branch did well in it. Drawing is now counted in the transfer the same as other branches, and the pupils put forth effort to master it. The same was true in music. It was not unfrequent to find pupils going out of the high schools unable to name notes of the simplest music. We now count music in our transfers, and it has wrought a wonderful change in the instruction in that branch.

MR. MITCHELL: When pupils have entered the high school, shall we refuse to promote them from the first year to the second if they lack proficiency in studies which are not essential to the study of the second year's course? It is plain that to study the higher mathematics of the second and third years, he must have algebra; but suppose he does not wish to pursue mathematics, but wishes to pursue the physical sciences, shall his want of proficiency in those branches which are not essential to the study of those branches, forbid him promotion? If he wishes to go through the higher departments of mathematics, shall he be refused because he is not proficient in the branches of the first year's course, which are not essential to the study of the higher mathematics? This is the question which I would like to have discussed: Should pupils be required to pass an examination in all the branches of the first year's course? This is the point which, I think, comes more directly before us than the one which was so ably discussed in the report. I think the schools are made for the scholars, and not the scholars for the schools. If pupils desire to study branches which lie in the third and fourth years in our high schools, there should be some arrangement by which they can reach them, without being compelled by rigid examinations to show their proficiency in non-essential branches in the first year. I agree with the report, that pupils should not be promoted to our high schools without a knowledge of English grammar and geography, as well as reading, writing, and arithmetic. I consider geography and English grammar, or at least that part of it which we have come to call "language", essential to the development of thought and mental discipline, and they are as necessary a preparation for high school studies as reading and writing. But, when what are called the "legal" branches have been pursued, it is at least questionable whether pupils should be compelled to take all the studies of the first year before they are allowed to pursue any in the second year.

MR. HANCOCK: I believe in taking the pupil's general average.

MR. MITCHELL: Before a pupil is advanced from the lower to the high school, he should be required to attain a general average, and a respectable minimum in each branch as well.

MR. HANCOCK: What will you do with those pupils who are excellent in language but never can learn arithmetic?

MR. MITCHELL: I question the propriety of admitting them to the higher course simply and solely on their average, without reference to their standing in the neglected study. If the average required be fixed at sixty or seventy per cent., the minimum may be forty. Suppose a pupil reaches one hundred in arithmetic, reading, and geography, shall we admit him without his knowing a noun from a verb?

A. J. RICKOFF: I have doubted whether an examination ought to be required of candidates for high schools, in the branches which are not almost absolutely essential to the pursuit of the studies of the high school course. We find, for instance, that very few pupils can carry on the study of algebra without a training in arith-

east covers all the primary operations, including common and and the large mass of children find that more training in arith- . A boy should know something of English grammar to study ›ric, and Latin. I know that it is maintained that pupils may be out a knowledge of English grammar, and I might be willing to nless a boy knows English grammar pretty well, he is not fit to s of the high school. It will not be claimed that a knowledge of tory and geography is necessary to pursue high school studies. hat Mr. Hancock will claim that music is necessary. Reading and ial, though not absolutely so, since a boy has gone through the :ago high school who can neither read nor write. He was blind, taught to read even the raised letters. We should take the very possible, that we may admit all into the high school, who have a ing the higher studies. If only pupils who pass regularly through were to be admitted to our high schools, we might submit all to a tion and demand a common grade of qualification. But our ntly receiving pupils from four to eight or ten out of a hundred, schools. The school at Salem receives eight or ten such pupils come with very little knowledge of United States history and et they make the very best pupils. In urging the opening of the schools as widely as possible for the admission of all who may h any prospect of success, I only plead for that liberty which I have in absence of a clear knowledge of the science of education, a certain knowledge of the conditions of the study of the higher re certainly have not got. We do not know these conditions. I e schools in all these branches, but gentlemen may say if no con- to them, if no certain qualification be required, what success will four years past geography, United States history, penmanship, e not been included in the examination for the high schools of :t we stand about as fair in these branches as any one of our sister o much beyond all that we can measure by our percentages, that em to the very lowest possible limit.

Wilmington: What is the object of the education in our public get pupils into the high school? It seems to me that American ade in the grammar schools, as well as in the high school. Why htly over geography, grammar, United States history, etc., to reach h we find in the high school, as Latin, algebra, physical geography, ry, natural philosophy, mental philosophy, trigonometry, geology, ration, and surveying? Why push our pupils out of the grammar ıigh school? I do not like to see any thing introduced to lower ur schools. It seems to me we ought, as far as possible, to raise hould like to see pupils get through the high school, but I should ell qualified and well trained in the lower schools. It seems to ertain what the essential branches are. In the absence of any ining what these are, it seems to me that the branches which are versally, are those that ought to be deemed essential, and we ought e a respectable knowledge of them. What the minimum per cent. tter in which there should be great latitude. I insist upon the study, but I do not, of course, require any thing like perfection. ıge in all the studies; but if a pupil stands disgracefully low in ld refuse to promote him. I would not advance a pupil from one much less from the grammar course to the high school, without a ination in each and all of the prescribed branches.

MR. RICKOFF: I would have in school, as out of school, those things which are absolutely essential, and I would have those things which lead to a wider culture and the elevation of the taste, occupying their proper places.

MR. HANCOCK: I differ with the gentleman. I would have the boy feel that whatever he undertakes to do, should be well done, and that there are no branches worthy to be taught at all, that are non-essential. I would cultivate in a boy the habit of working to the top of his bent. Now, I know from experience that branches in which pupils are not examined, are not thoroughly studied, except in cases where there is a special taste. Now, is it worth while for pupils to study those things which are not deemed of sufficient importance to be counted in promotion?

MR. HENKLE: We teach boys not to lie in school. Should we examine them to see if they lie out of school? We teach boys to be clean. How many times in a hundred days might a boy come to school with a dirty face, and still be promoted?

MR. HANCOCK: I am not aware that that is a branch of study.

MR. COLE: In my experience, I have found that all the helps I can get in any branch of study are beneficial. If there were no other reason, I would be in favor of examining in every branch we pretend to teach, at stated times, as an incentive to study. Boys are not angels, neither are girls. They do not always study as they should, and I have found examinations a very efficient means of persuading pupils to study diligently.

M. C. STEVENS, of Salem: It is not examinations as an incentive to study, but as a matter of promotion, that is under consideration. I have no doubt that these examinations are a very essential and useful incentive. We examine, at Salem, not so much to know whether a pupil is to be promoted, as an incentive to study. If a boy or girl fails in the examination, the tears will come in many cases. It is not because he is not to be promoted—not at all. He wants to go home and tell his parents that he has reached one hundred per cent. I am, however, all the time in a sort of muddle in this matter. When I hear Mr. Brown say that pupils should thoroughly understand English grammar, geography, history, etc., I say "Amen" to it; I want it to be so. Then, when I hear my friend here say that we should not be so rigid with the lame ducks, but should give them a chance to hobble along, I am on his side—and I don't know where I stand. [Laughter.]

W. C. CATLIN, of New Carlisle: I infer from the remarks of some of the gentlemen, that they make their promotions depend on one examination, at the close of the year. I have always made examinations, not only at the end of the year, but once a month, and every examination is made a matter of record, and counts on the question of promotion.

J. B. PEASLEE, of Cincinnati: I agree with the idea advanced that some of the branches taught are not so important as others. Music certainly is not so essential as arithmetic, grammar, or even geography. The same may be said of drawing. Now, while we have examinations, I would have a difference made between the essential branches and those which are not essential. I would examine in all, but count two or more of the less essential as one branch. Instruction is given in Cincinnati in several branches in German, and yet, in the examinations, German is only counted as one study. I would advise a similar plan in those branches not considered so essential. If there is to be leniency shown anywhere, it seems to me it should be in the high school, in those studies that are not really important in after life.

MR. HENKLE: In my own experience, I do not recollect an instance of a pupil failing to pass into the second year of the high school course, who had been present in the first year's studies. I know of no pupil that has fallen back. If a pupil has been industrious, I would tell him to go on. If he is behind from mere laziness, I

let on the brakes. We have promoted all, because nearly every pupil has d it. After a boy has gone through a high school course, should he be ted if he is not up to a fair standard? This is a very hard question to decide. ctice in the colleges of the country is to get a young man through, even if he t come fully up to the standard. Nearly all who continue through the course, luated. Those who fail, are dropped out either from inability or laziness hey get up to the point.

ITCHELL: A pupil has been over a year of a graded school course, and, at the deficient. He has been faithful and industrious in his studies, and regular dance, but, for lack of ability, he has not been able to come any where near table standard of scholarship. The practical question in such a case is this: l school be more benefited by his staying where he is another year, or by his romoted? Will it be just to keep him there another year? Is it not non- do so? I say let him go into the next grade. Does not common sense say go? The most difficult problem for us to solve is, our duty to dull scholars.

STEVENSON: I do not often talk in this association, but I would like to say g in regard to this subject. As I understand the question, it does not pertain tional cases. I do not believe a superintendent is capable of doing justice upils under his charge, until he knows the ability of every one; and he must n that in some way. The only way I can do this is by a system of examin- I believe there is no royal way to learning. The pupils must be made to tiently, and to work hard, as a condition of promotion from one department ier. Except in those exceptional cases which come before me every year, I promote a scholar who can not read in a way to be understood, who does not e geography of his own country, and who has no intelligent idea of numbers. erintendent who is the most rigid in his examinations, and, at the same time, st, will get the most work out of his pupils, and make the best scholars. If l let down the standard in my own schools, there are many pupils who would ular in attendance, and who could not make that effort which they now make their promotion to the various departments depends upon their passing the ations. After all, that teacher is most successful who gets the most reasona- k out of his pupils.

WATKINS: There is said to be a skeleton in every house. My lines have o me in the graded schools of our villages. The saddest thing I have seen tterly spiritless, discouraged, and abject scholar, who, year after year, has ssed by in the promotions, until he is of every hope bereft. Have these gen- who have the larger experience of cities, seen that skeleton? Is it there say if it is at all possible, let these pupils be promoted. I am so fortunate ve such assistance in my work as to be able to give such unfortunates extra n outside of the ordinary class hours.

HARVEY: I rise to relate a case—an "exceptional" case, like all those about ve have been talking. A boy of large heart, but a poor scholar, had man- worry through the grammar school until he reached the A class. When this as examined for promotion to the High School, his rating was somewhere be- forty and fifty per cent. It was a grave question with me what to do with I knew that he would not attend school any longer if he was forced to remain his rating placed him, and felt sure that, having entire confidence in me, he lo his best to please me if he was promoted. His parents begged as a per- vor that I would see what could be done with him in the department under cial charge. What should I have done with him? (A voice—"Take him, n.") That is what I did. I worked hard to convince him that he had brains

and could use them—always treating him as I would one of greater natural capacity. That treatment has done him very much good. Though not now a brilliant scholar, he stands fair in his class, rating ninety per cent. in chemistry at our last examination. He can not even now pass a very creditable examination in the common branches, but has become interested in natural philosophy and chemistry. I am going to use these and similar studies as means to make a man of him. Had I taken a different course with him, he would now be upon the streets, a source of constant anxiety to his parents. Though he may never be a great man, he will be a good man. Can not all or most of these exceptional cases be treated in a similar manner?

This boy is now aware of his ignorance of the common branches, and is becoming interested in them also—at our last test examination nearly reaching the standard required for a teacher's certificate.

Do not misunderstand me. Use a wide and wise discretion in dealing with these exceptional "lame ducks;" but require of those who *can* do well, all that the most rigid system of per-cents demands.

The question is asked, "How has this seeming partiality affected the rest of this boy's class?" It has not injured it in any manner whatever. The bright boys and girls in the class seem to understand and appreciate my motives in dealing with him as I do, and, whenever they can, assist him in his efforts to learn. I believe this will always be the case in similar instances.

MR. COWDERY: I have been greatly interested in this discussion, on account of its practical character. But, when you are about to promote large classes to the High School, should this discretionary power be lodged with you or with the board of education? Who is to know that a boy has "a large heart and a small brain?" I know we all approve the course Mr. Harvey pursued in this case—but there are a great many cases of a similar character to be disposed of in the course of a year. I desire to know what should be done. Shall pupils not up to a required standard be passed along, or shall they be kept back? Should there not be some provision made for a large class of youth that can not be promoted to our High Schools for want of preparation? Can not a course of instruction be arranged to meet their case in every essential particular? I think there can. In the Sandusky schools there is an unclassified department. It is one of the most popular features of our public school system. In this department we give as good instruction as is given in any district school—a good deal better, we think. It is a safety valve to the lower grades, as far as it goes. I am strongly in favor of the superintendent having much discretionary power, but he can not know the natural capacity, the habits of thought, and promise of the future of several thousand children. How can you know that? Please to state your views concerning periodical examinations. When you promote pupils, do you discard per-cents entirely?

MR. HARVEY: No, sir, I do not. If a child possess ordinary or average ability, and through laziness or carelessness fails to do his duty, I would not promote him. Degradation from his class is his natural punishment. But if from inability to attend school regularly, from sickness, or from other causes beyond his control, he falls below the required standard, I would recommend that a second and even third trial be made, in an advanced class, before fixing the final status of the pupil. With pupils of average capacity, examinations are a stimulus to study. The average boy dislikes to be rated low in his class, especially if this rating is made a matter of record, as it is in all good schools. The fact that some unfortunate one has been helped along, does not render him careless or indifferent with respect to the record he knows his teacher and his parents expect him to make.

MR. WATKINS: I think the objectionable features of the per cent. system may be obviated if those who have official control of the school, will acknowledge that the

teacher who knows his business, knows whether boys are to be promoted or not. This granted, the objectionable features of this harsh, narrow-minded grading in per cents, which never adequately can express human attainments, may be thrown aside. But we must still examine for the purpose of acquaintance with our pupils, and we must make some record of our examination for future reference. I have been trying to get rid of all the difficulty in this way. My board of education is wise enough to allow me to promote the pupils. I can promote them without doing injustice.

PRES. E. T. TAPPAN, of Gambier: The principles which govern the work of grading and passing pupils from one class to another, are not the same in all grades of schools. A thorough mastery of the work of each year before passing to the next, is impossible in any case and unnecessary. When the proper work of the next class depends upon a knowledge of the past one, as is generally the case in mathematics, then the student must know enough to enable him to understand profitably the work of the advanced class.

Sometimes a student has a very limited ability to understand one particular branch of study, and it may be well to let him pursue other studies which he can profit by in an older class, as in the very interesting case stated by Mr. Harvey. However, the question is more complicated, if at the end of the course of study, a degree is to be conferred, in testimony that the course of study has been fairly completed. Some who can receive a common-school course of instruction with profit, have not enough of intelligence and diligence to be benefited by a college course.

Mr. President, may not the college custom of allowing promotion *conditionally* be adopted with advantage in some other grades of schools? The condition may be various. It may be a re-examination at the beginning of the next term: it may be a re-study of the subject, with private recitations and another examination; it may be a re-study of the subject with the next lower class, while the student is allowed to keep on with his own class also. Different methods prevail in different colleges. In our city high schools, is the amount of work required of each class so great that, when a student has partially failed to pass, it is impossible to keep up with the class and also make up conditions?

MR. HANCOCK: We do that in our high schools.

MR. MITCHELL: We do it in Columbus, too.

MR. RICKOFF: Might not those who come very near to the standard be admitted, on condition only of carrying on the studies of the high school successfully; say for a limited time, three months, to be tested by monthly examinations?

MR. TAPPAN said that might be done in certain cases. The best method to be pursued in each case, must depend on the circumstances, including the peculiar disposition and mental qualifications of the student. This was illustrated by Mr. Tappan in an account of several cases in his own experience.

THE RELATION OF SUPERINTENDENTS TO TEACHERS.

DISCUSSION OPENED BY A. T. WILES, ZANESVILLE.

MR. PRESIDENT: I was not aware until this afternoon that the gentleman who was to open this discussion, would be absent. The chairman of the executive committee having requested me to take his place, I have noted down a few things which I will present. I hope, however, that my remarks may serve as a small end of a wedge, which is useful as an opener.

The first of the relations of superintendents to teachers, that I shall notice,

is that of *supervisor* of the teachers' work. It is not necessary to more than mention this. In graded schools, teachers are to be distributed among the various grades, and this is the superintendent's duty.

The second relation is that of *instructor.* In the absence of professional training of teachers, or of any law that requires teachers to have professional training, it is necessary for the superintendent to be the instructor of his teachers in the art of teaching and in the management of schools. The teachers come into the schools without experience, and with but a superficial preparation for their work, and after they engage in the work of the school-room, they have not adequate time to think out proper plans for themselves, and to study methods of instruction. The superintendent must supply this need by standing in this relation of instructor upon these subjects, correcting errors and faulty methods of teaching. This, I think, is the business of the superintendent. He is to observe the work of his teachers, and call their attention to better plans and better methods. As has been said in former discussions on this subject, teachers are apt to fall into ruts. It is the duty of the superintendent to get his teachers out of these ruts, and keep them out, and to do this he should be careful not to get into ruts himself. There may be a tendency in that direction on the part of superintendents. Another caution, in this connection, is that the superintendent should ride no hobby. Another is that he should force no method upon his teachers. Any teacher will be most successful in the use of methods which he or she understands and appreciates, whether such method be right or wrong in principle. The teacher has faith in himself. The superintendent should exercise tact in carrying out his views of instruction and school management. He should first so present his views and methods to his teachers as to convince them of their correctness.

Another relation which the superintendent sustains to teachers is that of *counselor.* Difficulties are constantly occurring in the practice of every teacher, in which counsel is needed. In order to be able to fill this part of his duty, the superintendent should himself have a mature experience as a teacher, so that every phase of difficulty, which his teachers may experience, shall have some counterpart in his own experience. Teachers some times need encouragement under the perplexities which beset them. Especially is this true of those who have had but little or no experience. They are apt to become disheartened in their work, and the superintendent, if he has had the necessary experience, can encourage them, and supply needed advice. This duty should, of course, be discharged with caution, and judiciously.

Teachers some times need to be stimulated in the discharge of their duty, and, where this fact is observed, it is the duty of the superintendent to apply this *stimulus.* The superintendent should be able to inspire enthusiasm in his teachers. He should be filled with it himself, that he may communicate it to his teachers.

The superintendent should be able to rally his teachers about him, so that he and they may be a unit in carrying out the work of the schools.

In his visits to the schools, the superintendent should not be suspicious or fault-finding. He should place himself in such a relation to his teachers that

presence in the school-room shall not be embarrassing to them, but they ıld feel that he is a help to them, and that they are stronger by his pres-. These, Mr. President, are all the items I had noted down to consider his occasion.

ɜN HANCOCK: The relation of a superintendent to his associate teachers is one eat delicacy, and one which requires great prudence upon his part and great ıess and forbearance upon theirs, if there is to be harmony in their work. No e school system can attain its highest results in any locality where this rela- loes not exist. Where this cannot be attained, I think it will be better that ılation between superintendent and teachers should be dissolved. The superin- nt should be a leader rather than one who points out the way and says "go." all true teachers are leaders. The superintendent should strive to put himself e lead of those who are associated with him, and, if he is wise, they will gladly v. The superintendent will generally be selected for one or two qualities— r large experience, or more than average ability. It is the duty of the super- dent to become acquainted with the progress of education, so that he may lead ıachers in the best way. I have very little sympathy with those who, having ıed the highest positions, are content to run in the old ruts, making no attempts ther methods or experience for the use of their teachers. This does not exclude, e teachers' part, a duty corresponding to his, to keep themselves thoroughly med on the best methods of instruction. In a word, the superintendent is to be ıead of the system only so far as necessary, as an ultimate resort in authority. ıould make an exhibition of this authority as seldom as possible. I am sure superintendents sometimes make mistakes in endeavoring to impress their own e upon all the instruction given in their schools. They are the Cæsars, and heads are to be seen upon every educational coin that is struck. On the other , there are dangers in attempting too great an individuality. It is true, teach- ın not, as a general thing, teach except in their own way, but they should not ı this a standard. Teachers should conform in the general to the best methods ı them, but not in particulars.

N. W. D. HENKLE, in response to a call, said: If you want any thing done in school, a particular result brought about, it is well to find out whether you can ıccomplish it by direct or indirect means. I think that in many cases a hint is r than a lecture. In the mode of conducting an examination, or even of teach- class, you can dexterously bring in any thing you would like to have incor- ed by the teacher; and, if the teacher has any sense, and there is any good in hing you introduce, it will be adopted. You can never convince people of their by knocking them down. The best way is to infuse new ideas into the teach- This should be done by presenting one idea after another, as occasion may . These will be put together, and they will form after awhile in the mind of the ıers in some kind of symmetry; and out of them will be gathered by the teacher tem, the very system or model of instruction that the superintendent may want ıve introduced.

gree with both speakers in saying that no school can be conducted with any ıss when there is an antagonism between the teachers and superintendent. This of things is a very serious obstacle to the progress of the schools. In some this may be the fault of the teacher, in other cases the fault may exist with the rintendent; and in some cases it may be that the fault exists with both. When uperintendent does not stand between the teachers and the board of education,

there is a constant triangular fight. Whatever may be the cause of these things, t success of the school is greatly endangered. My theory in reference to this matt is that the board of education ought to put the schools into the hands of the supe intendent and let him alone until they have lost confidence in him. Then, like tl English Parliament, they can vote "a want of confidence" and let him resign. Tl superintendent ought to represent two parties, the board of education and th teachers. The superintendent ought to be present at every meeting of the boar except when the subject is the superintendent himself. I do not believe in the secret meetings of boards, from which reporters for the press and others a excluded. What are the teachers to do all this time? They must bear their bu dens like philosophers until the board sees it and the superintendent resigns or removed. There ought to be but one party in a school board. The members shou be a unit in their school policy. I know of one board of education that had b two negative votes in five years. They discussed matters very fully and candidly without any fighting spirit, and when they came to vote they were agreed. Whe as in Cincinnati, there are principals or sub-superintendents, the same policy ough to hold good. There should be the greatest harmony between the teachers and th principals, and between all and the superintendent. To this end, all should be wi ling to give up individual views, and there should be no attempt to press the sam methods on all the schools. The visitor ought to find different methods of teachin and managing in different schools, though the results reached may be similar. have visited schools in which the pupils were all called out and dismissed in th same way. The superintendent had prescribed the plan. What if one teacher di missed pupils singly, another in platoons, another by having all rise? These a matters of detail, and should be left to the teacher. I am in favor of individualit and I think that superintendents may always learn some thing from their teacher There are primary teachers that surpass any superintendent. In working up detai for themselves, teachers may hit upon valuable methods.

WM. MITCHELL: Another relation which the superintendent bears to his teache is that of *defender*. It is common for teachers to be blamed very unjustly by paren who know only a tithe of the facts in any particular case. The superintendent, hea ing only the parent's statement, finds it easy to say that which implies a censure the teacher. Many excellent teachers have been sacrificed because the superinten ent did not stand by, defend and excuse them. I have known in my own expe ence many instances where the statement of children, corroborated by that of scho mates, have given rise to most alarming stories; but when the cases were ful investigated, and all the facts on both sides were brought out, the parents entir approved of the course of the teacher. Some two or three years ago, I investigat a case in which it was charged that a pupil had died from the punishment inflic by the teacher. I found the whole school in an uproar. I sent for the local co mittee, and we took steps to investigate the matter. We found that the boy h been punished but slightly. We went to see the physician who had attended boy in his illness. He gave his certificate that the punishment the boy had recei in school had not the slightest connection with his death. Now, if we had sho the slightest disposition to falter in the matter, the teacher would have been unju blamed, and perhaps dismissed. Except in the most inexcusable cases of blam worthy conduct, a superintendent should sustain his teachers.

W. C. CATLIN: This subject is one that has attracted my attention more than other for the last ten years, and I feel disposed to say a very few words upon it. was out of school one year, and visited many schools in Ohio and Michigan. I ca to the conclusion that there is too much interference on the part of superintend with their teachers. I found teachers teaching in a sort of machine manner, and

inquiry, I found that they were told that they must teach just in that way. I would ask, "Well, do you think it the best way? Could you not perform the same duty in some other way?" They would answer, "Why, sir, it is not my way. I think I could do better in some other way, but we are told to do this just in this way, and we have just such a time to do it." I noticed other things that led me to think that many teachers—not only the lady teachers, but the gentlemen—consider themselves as mere machines. I would like to hear, not only from superintendents, but from teachers, and especially from the lady teachers. I wish they would speak out in public as they speak under some other circumstances. [Laughter.]

M. F. COWDERY, of Sandusky: How far may the superintendent go in proposing methods of instruction? How far ought he to go in insisting upon the adoption of his favorite methods? Can we not help this matter by some familiar illustration? Let us suppose that a teacher only requires his pupils to work out the problems in arithmetic and give the results. The superintendent may wish the pupils to step to the blackboard and give the reason of any step before the class. He may also wish the pupil to prove his work at the blackboard, and he may urge that so much confidence should be secured in the pupil that he can do this readily. If the teacher thinks this is asking too much, the superintendent may say, "I have noticed a want of self-reliance in the work of your pupils in arithmetic and other studies. I think there are methods of instruction that will cultivate this self-reliance. We want pupils to know what they are doing, and we want such methods of instruction as will secure this result." He might make these suggestions, and leave the teachers to exercise their own individuality. Conceding that methods should be carefully considered by the teacher before their adoption, he could say, "Unless you can give a better method, I shall expect you to pursue the method suggested." In some such way, I think, the superintendent and teacher could meet on common ground, and arrange their plans without the sacrifice of the teacher's individuality.

U. T. CURRAN: There has been a great awakening among teachers with regard to methods of teaching. This has been shared by superintendents and principals, and, like all persons who are learning something new, they have been very zealous in pushing their new methods, and, as a consequence, they have been put into the hands of teachers who did not understand them. The true success of any educational method comes from the teacher's own understanding of it, and this attempt to force teachers to use methods, not understood, has not been a success. I have no doubt that many schools have been injured by the best of superintendents, who, fired with ideas of progress, have urged advanced methods upon a raw set of teachers. Teachers can only do good service when they work in their own way. If they work in the superintendent's way, they must first make it their own. I have seen a little of this. I have known teachers to use good imported methods so mechanically that they did not succeed as well as ordinary country teachers.

E. O. VAILE, of Columbus: My experience leads me to think that superintendents make many mistakes in trying to tell and show teachers too much. A superintendent or principal comes into a room, and, without reference to the views or ability of the teacher, says: "I would like to have you do so and so," and I am sorry to see that there is a little approval of this course to-day. I know many superintendents prefer teachers who, when told how to do any thing, will say, "I will do it as you wish." It seems to me that this is not the highest order of teaching. I think that true teachers do their best in their own way. When improvements are their own, we get the best results. It seems to me that we sometimes lose sight of what may be called the normal method of supervision. We ought to develop and train teachers for their future work as we train scholars. We should rather be suggestors and guides than directors.

W. WATKINS: It seems to be vain to consider all the principles which should ac
unto the superintendent in his conduct to his teachers. There is no special rul
except that of prudence and good judgment. I think that no person who is quali
fied by knowledge, age, and experience to be a superintendent, and who manage
his business with ordinary prudence, will ever have occasion to complain of hi
teachers for failing to adopt his methods. I should seriously think that I was ou
of my vocation, if I was falling into these quarrels with my teachers. If a superin
tendent explains his methods carefully, kindly, and with earnestness, they will, i
due season, be accepted by the teachers. I, of course, assume that he knows hi
business; that he understands the principles on which the work should be done.

W. H. COLE: There are one or two practical questions not yet raised in this dis
cussion, which are specially applicable to supervision in the smaller towns. One o
these relates to the discipline of the schools. I have studied to know just how fa
the superintendent should assist in the discipline of the different rooms. Should he
take notice of all cases referred to him, or should he leave all cases to be managed
by the teachers, or should he discriminate and take such as he thinks need his atten
tion? It seems to me that he should assist the teachers, to some extent, in matter
of discipline. I have known cases in which teachers greatly needed support and
help. Another question refers to the grading and classification of pupils. Should
the teacher or superintendent sustain this pressure? In my own practice, I assume
the responsibility, standing between the teacher and the parent. This allows the
teachers freedom in their work. I have known cases in which the teacher was
almost crushed by the pressure which the superintendent ought to have assumed. I
should like to hear from those whose experience has been more varied than mine.

J. H. LOOMIS, of Napoleon: In some towns, the school directors are men who
have never given the subject of education any thought. Their notions of school
management are very crude, and yet they assume to know all about it, and to direct
the running of the schools; but when there is a failure, the blame is laid upon the
superintendent. The subject of methods has been discussed here. I would like to
hear the methods of running a school board discussed. [Laughter and applause.]

MR. COLE: I believe I have the premium board in the State of Ohio, and I arise
to commend them. In the beginning of the year they say to me, "We give you
power to select your teachers, and we hold you responsible for the condition of the
schools the next year."

MR. LOOMIS: I have no fault to find with my board in regard to their sustaining
me. The greatest difficulty I have is to retain the teachers that suit me. The means
at my disposal are inadequate.

C. W. HEYWOOD, of East Cleveland: I wish to ask one question. What is to be done
when the board of education not only elects the teachers, but assigns them to the
places they are to occupy for the term, simply calling upon the superintendent to
see that all the teachers are in their places, and that they run their daily exercise
on the same progamme to the minute? What becomes of the relation of the super
intendent to the teachers under the action of such a board?

M. F. COWDERY: Two extreme views have been presented respecting the employ
ment of teachers, neither of which should, I think, be adopted by the young men o
the profession. I think that it is not desirable for a board to delegate to the super
intendent the power to engage or discharge teachers. Such a course is not for the
best interests either of the superintendent or of the schools. It is best for the
superintendent not to ask too much and not to accept too much. It is, of course
proper and necessary that the wishes of the superintendent be consulted, but the
exercise of this power belongs legally and by right to the board. Even in the clas

tion of pupils and the administration of discipline, the board should, be in
el and sympathy with the superintendent.

E. WHITE (in response to a call): I have for some time placed the subject under
leration among the problems in the management of graded schools, which are
t satisfactorily solved. The question may thus be stated: How can a corps
chers be subjected to efficient supervision without reducing them to operatives?
ifficulty lies in the fact that success involves the adjustment of two appar-
antagonistic principles. That there may be necessary system, there must be
l degree of uniformity in instruction and management, and, in order that the
r may do true work, he must have freedom. All operative work fails in the
-room. Men and women are not educated by machinery. The teacher must
artist, working by his own methods and embodying his own ideas. It is only
he rises to this standard that he uses his best powers. Some superintendents
chiefly for system, and a system embodying their own ideas and methods.
ore vigorous and earnest they are, the more likely are they to reduce their
rs to mere operatives. On the contrary, supervision amounts to but little
teachers pursue such diverse plans as to destroy all system. Hence, supervi-
ust secure needed uniformity and, at the same time, allow individuality.
an this be done?

ay help to see that the uniformity sought should relate more to *results* than to
ds. Teachers may be required to produce certain results, and yet be left rea-
ly free in their methods. It is also possible for a superintendent to instruct
achers in principles and methods, and, at the same time, awaken and encour-
spirit of professional inquiry and experiment. There is a very great differ-
n the work of teachers who are earnestly seeking for better methods, and those
re content to teach as they are directed. I referred last year to the superin-
t who said that it was idle to ask his teachers to read professional works;
hey looked to him for their methods. I also referred to the lady principal in
lelphia, who excused her work by saying that she was "preparing wares for
arket." Such supervision fails to bring out the highest skill and power of a
of teachers. The teacher who develops a method having the stamp of her own
s upon it, has done a great work, not only for herself, but for the superintend-
d all her associate teachers. It seems to me that it is possible to secure uni-
ty and system without sacrificing the professional freedom and spirit of the
r.

SIDENT RICKOFF: I desire to direct attention to one or two mistakes made in
iscussion. One is a mistake in the use of the terms *manner* and *method*. They
vo different things. Method is based on a system of philosophy; manner is
plication of it. The manner of one teacher may differ widely from another,
eir methods may be the same. We may give great latitude in manner, but
l be more cautious in giving latitude in method; and yet even very great lati-
hould sometimes be given in method. One teacher may approach a subject
a side entirely different from another. One may choose the analytical method,
er the synthetical; one the inductive, another the deductive. The method of
ng is not determined by examination, but the subjects and the quantity taught
termined more by the examinations than by the course of study. If I wished
e direction to the work of the Cleveland schools for the next year in any de-
ent, I should be very careful to keep in my hands the preparation of the ques-
to be used in the examinations. This would be more effective than all the
es I could give the teachers. Like the Philadelphia lady, teachers prepare
"wares for the market."

ree that a method devised by a teacher is more efficacious than any method

which can be devised for him. Teachers should be encouraged to devise methods for themselves, and when this has been done intelligently the superintendent should commend the effort, even though he may not like the method. I see in the phonic method of teaching reading the key to all reading, and yet I would let a teacher use even the word method, if she prefers it, and can defend it with good reasons of her own, showing that she has an intelligent idea of what she is doing. When a teacher can be quietly led to develop a good method, it should be done, and she should have the credit of it all. The success of the teacher and the progress of the schools reflect due credit on the superintendent. The superintendent should so co-operate with his teachers in government that in the eyes of the pupils they may be identified. They should be one in sympathy and one so far as their common relations to the work are concerned.

One word in regard to the hearing of complaints. I understood Mr. Mitchell to say that superintendents should always, except in flagrant cases, be on the side of the teacher. I think he will agree with me that the superintendent should always listen with great deference to complaints, and that he should occupy an impartial position between the pupils, parents, and teachers. He may be closely identified with the teacher in feeling, but the people must feel that he is impartial, or they will conclude that his decisions are unjust.

MR. MITCHELL: I was not understood. I meant to say that the superintendent should not allow any statement of parents *before* investigation, to lead him to express or imply any condemnation of the teacher. When all the facts are known, he should stand as the next best friend of the teacher, unless the teacher is manifestly wrong. I would not have the superintendent defend a teacher who is in the wrong.

MR. RICKOFF: I now understand your remark, and I indorse it most heartily.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES OF OHIO.

This Association met, Thursday evening, July 6th in the High School room.

In the absence of Pres. Fairchild, the chair was occupied by Pres. Talbot, who delivered an address upon "The Place of Scientific Studies in Present Education."

At the session on Friday morning, the officers of last year were reëlected.

The Executive Committee were authorized to make arrangements for a joint meeting next year, with the Ohio Teachers' Association and the Superintendents' Association.

ELI T. TAPPAN,
Secretary.

EDUCATION is a better safeguard of liberty than a standing army. If we retrench the wages of the schoolmaster, we must raise those of the recruiting sergeant.—EVERETT.

Editorial Department.

STATE OF IOWA,
DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, *Des Moines*, Aug. 23, 1871.

HITE, ESQ., Editor NATIONAL TEACHER, Columbus, O.:

Sir: Allow me to acknowledge the superior value of the last (August) of the NATIONAL TEACHER. It is almost a novelty in the manner in ıe substance is gathered and arranged, and I may be allowed to say ıve never been so thrilled and interested as in reading these masterly s and the lively criticisms that were made upon them. It is difficult hether this number speaks more emphatically for the enterprising ıip displayed in getting it up, or for the vigorous and comprehensive ork of the noble State you represent. Certainly a body of men that ıus forward and vivacious in taking hold of the educational problems ge, and can be so aptly and fully represented in their great national deserve the congratulations of all their fellow workers far and near.

Respectfully,
A. S. KISSELL,
H. WYNN, *Deputy.*
Supt. of Pub. Instruction.

'HE above letter from "beyond the Mississippi" indicates the hearty ı which has been awarded our August issue. It is not only recognized mph of educational journalism, but it is strongly commended for the value of the "live thoughts" which crowd its eighty pages. The is certainly a credit to the Ohio Teachers' Association, which, we be- the only state association in the country that undertakes to publish a *aphic* report of its proceedings. We shall not be accused of undue de if we add that very few teachers' associations have such proceed- publish. The discussions are specially creditable to Ohio teachers. ɜ pointed, direct, and practical, and the widest differences of opinion essed and maintained with little personal clashing. We publish this report of the proceedings of the Ohio Superintendents' Association, again increasing the number of pages, we also present a considerable ɔf contributed and editorial matter. The discussions are more con- ıhan last month, but we have aimed to give the substance of each 's remarks, and, as far as possible, in his words. These two issues and September) have cost as much time and money as *four* ordinary ı, and we hope that they may be accepted as an earnest of our purpose this journal worthy of the profession.

WE recently listened to a very interesting discussion on the classifica- country schools. The speakers agreed that a proper classification reatly improve these schools, but all found serious difficulties in the

way. A school director declared that their classification was "an up-hill business." The country teachers, who participated in the discussion, thought that the essential condition was supervision; that there must be a competent person in each township to examine the pupils and determine their promotion. All regarded any thing like system impossible, so long as parents assume the right to dictate not only the studies which their children shall pursue, but the classes in which they shall recite. We think that this goes to the very root of the difficulty. These schools are broken into fragments of classes by a multitude of authorities, and the best efforts of the teachers are largely frittered away. What is needed is the adoption of a general course of study by the school board, and the prescribing of a standard of promotion from one class to another. This will settle this conflict of authority, and give the country schools an authoritative head—now a pressing need. It is impossible to heed every parent's wishes in a public school. In order to secure economy and efficiency of instruction, there must be system. This is one great advantage of graded schools. It is true that the course of study for country schools must be somewhat general and elastic, but we think that it may be made sufficiently definite to guide the teachers and serve as a basis of classification. Its complete success would require supervision, but much can be done by school boards and teachers, when the former sustain the latter. But little can be accomplished when country schools are under the control of *two* authorities, the township board and the sub-district board, as in Ohio. We regard this subject one of great practical importance.

——The meeting of the National Educational Convention, held at St. Louis, Aug. 22–24, was a gratifying success. Owing to the refusal of the Eastern railroad companies to make satisfactory arrangements, the attendance, especially from the East, was not as large as was anticipated. The West was, however, quite well represented, and the enrollment was considerably larger than that of last year. The number of States represented was larger, we believe, than at any previous meeting. The three National Associations were consolidated last year at Cleveland, and the happy issue of the first meeting under the new constitution attests the wisdom of the change. The four sections held sessions three half days, though the Normal Section and the Superintendents' Section were obliged to hold two joint sessions. The Presidents were as follows: National Educational Association, Hon. J. L. Pickard, of Illinois; Elementary Section, A. C. Shortridge, of Indiana; Normal Section, S. H. White, of Illinois; Superintendents' Section, Hon. W. D. Henkle, of Ohio; Department of Higher Education, Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio—all of whom won high commendation. President Pickard not only presided in a most admirable manner, but he gave personal attention to every thing which could contribute to the success of the meeting. His financial management received the hearty praise of the Board of Directors. It is believed that the arrangements for the annual meeting were never before made at so small a cost. St. Louis also deserves special commendation for the hospitable manner in which she received the Association. A carriage ride to Shaw's Garden and a railroad excursion

:o Iron Mountain were added to the most complete arrangements for the ses-sions. Deserved praise was awarded the local committee, of which Supt. W. [. Harris was chairman. The following are the principal officers for the ensu-ng year:

NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATION — President, E. E. White, of Ohio; ecretary, S H. White, of Illinois.

ELEMENTARY SECTION—President, Miss Delia A. Lathrop, of Ohio; Secre-ry, L. H. Cheney, of Missouri.

NORMAL SECTION—President, C. C. Rounds, of Maine; Secretary, N. Newby, Indiana.

SUPERINTENDENTS' SECTION—President, John Hancock, of Ohio; Secretary, C. Shortridge, of Indiana.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION — President, James McCosh, of New rsey; Secretaries, Eli T. Tappan, of Ohio, and E. H. Safford, of Illinois.

Arrangements were made for the speedy publication of the proceedings of Association, including the addresses and papers and abstracts of the discus-ns. The Publication Committee consists of W. E. Crosby, of Iowa (Secre-y for 1870–1); S. H. White, of Illinois; N. A. Calkins, of New York; and D. Williams, of Georgia.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

n every school, study and good conduct are secured by the use of incent-, good or bad. Every act, every purpose, springs from some motive, the racter of which determines the influence of the act or purpose on the pu-moral life. If the pupil's motives be low and selfish, his moral nature will reby be debased, and this is true whatever may be the appearance of his ernal conduct.

his view discloses the paramount importance of right incentives in school truction and government—an importance not fully recognized, and a sub-t very imperfectly understood. It is not enough that the teacher manages ecure diligence in study and good order. The vital inquiry is, What *motives* s he appeal to in gaining these ends? If these are wrong, the result, how-r fair in external appearance, will prove to be like the apples of Sodom. ere is, in brief, an inseparable connection between school instruction or rernment and moral training. Every exercise of the school-room enters the moral character of the pupil.

Nor is the difficulty solved when the teacher has determined correctly what entives are intrinsically right and what are intrinsically wrong. Right in-tives differ in degree, so to speak, and the lower are always improperly d when the higher would be equally effective. Lower incentives may be essary and proper in controlling a school of savages, but as fast as the age nature is overcome, the higher should be appealed to. The true doc-e is, that the use of lower incentives should be temporary, and they should

be made preparatory to those which are higher and nobler. Of two motives equally potent, the higher should always be placed before the pupil.

These statements show why it is that some teachers fail to develop a manly and noble character in their pupils. They treat them as ninnies or savages, incapable of noble impulses, and callous to all appeals of conscience and right. The path of duty is hedged in with artificial rewards, and the way of disobedience is made to bristle with artificial punishments. Between the pupil and every duty is placed some false incentive, as a credit-mark, a ticket, a holiday, or a prize, and this becomes the immediate end of study or aim of conduct. That such a system should fail to quicken the conscience or nourish a high sense of duty, is not strange. The pupil's moral nature is fed on husks.

We have said thus much "to break ground" in a field of inquiry which needs careful cultivation. Scarcely a line has been written for our pages touching this subject, and yet, if we mistake not, there is no educational topic more fundamental and vital. The great duty of American schools is the right moral training of their pupils. Character is a more imperative necessity than scholarship. We shall be very glad to receive practical and pointed contributions on this always "live topic."

SCHOOL RIGHTS OF COLORED YOUTH.

The question has been raised whether the Fourteenth Amendment does not give to colored children the right to attend the public schools. The first section provides that "No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States," and it is claimed that the benefit of public education is one of these "privileges or immunities" which can not be abridged. It is clear, we think, that this provision gives all citizens an equal right to the full benefit of public education, but we do not see that it forbids the organization of separate schools for white and colored youth, *provided* that these schools afford *equal* educational advantages. The State can not provide superior schools for white youth and inferior schools for colored youth, nor can these two classes of schools be continued an unequal length of time. The last clause of the thirty-first section of the Ohio school law, which was always a disgrace, is now clearly a *nullity*. When a separate school for colored children is "impracticable", or, for any cause, is not provided, or when such school does not afford equal educational advantages, colored children can demand admission to the public schools, and they can not be excluded. Their educational privileges can not be abridged. Happily both political parties in Ohio now hold the recent amendments to the Constitution to be valid and binding, and so this question is at last removed from politics. The right of every colored child in Ohio to the benefit of a common school education is one of the guarantees of the United States Constitution; and he can not be cheated out of this right by any pro-rata division of school moneys.

MISCELLANY.

—When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the ıcher due him, we always remail it.

—All subscriptions to this journal must begin with the January, April, July, ctober number. We can still supply back numbers from January or July.

—The late issue of the August number, owing to its large size, and the absence ıe editor have made this number late. We hope to be nearer on time next ;h.

rsonal.—Hon. W. D. Henkle has resigned the office of Ohio Commissioner of non Schools, to resume the charge of the public schools of Salem, O., at a sal- f $2,500, being $500 more than the salary paid him by the State. Thos. W. ey, superintendent of the Painesville schools, has been appointed his successor excellent appointment. He has not yet accepted the position.

n. A. D. Williams, late State School Superintendent of West Virginia, has ted the principalship of the Nebraska State Normal School at Peru; salary).

n. Geo. W. Hoss, of Indiana, for several years the editor of the *School Journal*, ccepted the principalship of the Kansas State Normal School at Emporia.

f. J. C. Greenough, of the Westfield State Normal School, Mass., has accepted rincipalship of the Rhode Island State Normal School; salary $3,000.

H. Cook, late principal of the Woodstock Academy, Ct., has accepted the prin- hip of the Pennsylvania State Normal School, at West Chester.

ırles Scribner, the senior partner of the well-known publishing house of es Scribner & Co., died recently in Lucerne, Switzerland.

ı. Ira Divoll, State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Missouri, and for- superintendent of the public schools of St. Louis, died on the 22d of June. ccount of failing health, he had resigned his office, to take effect July 1st. John Monteith, formerly of Ohio, is his successor. Mr. Divoll was one of the nent educators of the country.

I. White, principal of the Peoria Normal School, has resigned the editorial e of the *Illinois Teacher*, a position he has filled with great ability and success. und his duties too heavy a load. E. W. Coy, principal of the Peoria High l, succeeds him as editor of the *Teacher*. He has made a good beginning.

A. Bell has resigned the principalship of the Indianapolis High School to e his time to the *Indiana School Journal*, of which he is now both editor and her. This is the way to make a good journal.

f. Noah Porter succeeds President Woolsey as the head of Yale College. The i have indorsed his appointment by a resolution to raise half a million dollars ı benefit of the College.

thew F. Maury, LL.D., has accepted the presidency of the University of Ala- The institution is to be thoroughly reorganized and liberally endowed.

H. L. Hitchcock has resigned the presidency of Western Reserve College, and Carroll Cutler has been elected his successor. Rev. L. S. Potwin succeeds Barrows as professor of Latin and English Literature.

. H. A. Thompson, for several years past superintendent of the schools of O., has accepted the chair of mathematics in Westfield College, Ill.

R. W. Stevenson, for eleven years past the successful superintendent of the schools of Norwalk, succeeds Capt. Wm. Mitchell as superintendent of the schools of Columbus, O.—salary, $2,500. He is assisted by Alfred Humphreys, E. O. Vaile, and C. Forney, supervisory principals.

Warren Higley, late principal of the Cleveland West High School, has been elected superintendent of the public schools of Dayton, O.—salary, $3,000. Col. Parker is assistant superintendent.

Mary P. Rhoades, of Syracuse, N. Y., a graduate of Vassar College, has been appointed assistant teacher in the Columbus High School; salary $900.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF INSTRUCTION.—The forty-second annual meeting of this Educational Association was held at Fitchburg, Mass., July 26–28. The meeting is reported one of the best yet held. Addresses were delivered by Gen. John Eaton, National Commissioner, Supt. W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, Rev. H. N. Hudson and C. C. Perkins, of Boston, Hon. H. K. Oliver, of Salem, Prof. D. C. Gilman, of Yale College, President Richard Edwards, of Illinois, Hon. Joseph White, of Massachusetts, Hon. Warren Johnson, of Maine, and N. A. Calkins, of New York. Several of the topics discussed were of great practical importance. Abner J. Phipps, State Agent of the Massachusetts Board of Education, was elected president for the ensuing year. The Institute resolved to continue its work upon its present and former plan, and adjourned to next year.

PENNSYLVANIA.—The September number of the *School Journal*, just received, is filled with the proceedings of the annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association, held at Williamsport, August 8–10. Papers were read on "Labor and Rest," by Miss Jennie Reighard; on "Common Relations of Colleges and Public Schools to Liberal Education," by Prof. Geo. R. Bliss; "Retrospect of the Pennsylvania School System," by Hon. H. C. Hickok, ex-State School Superintendent; "Music in the Common Schools," by Prof. Jerome Hopkins, of New York; "The Next Step," by S. C. Shortridge; "Footprints," by Miss Laura M. Parker; "Science in Education," by Prof. George Eastburn; "A Graded Course of Study Applicable to Schools of all Classes," by Col. G. F. McFarland, and "American Education Progressive," by Gen. John Eaton, National Commissioner. President Raub's inaugural address was devoted to the "present necessities" of the school system of the State. The chief of these is "better trained teachers." He urged increased state appropriations to normal schools; a more systematic method of conducting county institutes; and a state board of institute instructors, to be also examiners of candidates for the State Permanent Certificate. Among the topics discussed was the law restricting changes in text-books, and compulsory school attendance. Appropriate tributes of respect were paid to the memory of the late Dr. Thomas H. Burrowes, and William F. Myers of West Chester. The *Journal* contrasts the meeting with the one held at the same place fifteen years before. The late meeting was larger, the number enrolled being 323, and it was a greater social success, but the former included more strong men.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting at Ravenswood the last week of June. About one hundred delegates, representing some twenty counties, were present. The meeting had largely the character of an institute, the greater part of the time being devoted to professional instruction. The lecturers employed for this purpose were Prof. F. A. Allen, of Pennsylvania, Prof. Robert Kidd, of Indiana, and E. E. White, of Ohio. The exercises of the Association proper included the inaugural address of President A. D. Williams, an address by Rev. Dr. Martin, and papers by Supt. F. S. Williams, of Wheeling, on

the "Metric System"; by F. H. Crago, of the West Liberty Normal School, on "Methods of Teaching"; by J. C. Gilchrist, of the Fairmont Normal School, on "Normal Schools", and an experimental lecture on Chemistry by J. F. Snowden, of Wheeling. The topic of special interest was the Free School System of the State, its progress and present needs and dangers. The subject was fully discussed by ex-Superintendent Williams in his inaugural address, and also by Dr. Martin, and several other gentlemen, who made brief speeches. All agreed that the school system had made very great progress since its organization, and all urged its continued support. The Association appointed a committee to co-operate with the State Superintendent in such plans as he may devise for carrying forward the institute work, which, last year, accomplished so much good. The enthusiasm manifested in the closing exercises, was cheering, and all felt that the meeting will exert a wide and potent influence for good. The next annual meeting is to be held at Fairmont.

STATE CERTIFICATES.—The Ohio Board of Examiners, consisting of A. J. Rickoff, John Hancock, and T. C. Mendenhall, held an examination in Sandusky, at the close of the meeting of the State Teachers' Association. Life certificates were granted to Isaac H. Turrill, Joseph L. Thornton, G. W. Oyler, E. P. Prichard, W. A. Fillmore, J. H. Bromwell, Mrs. Harriet G. Marvin, Miss Lucy S. Patrick, and Miss Evelyn McComas, Cincinnati; E. O. Vaile and Miss Mary Wirth, Columbus; F. D. Davis, Oxford; Wait Wright, Rushsylvania; E. L. Agin, Dry Ridge; and Miss Dora J. Mayhew, Evansville, Ind.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

LOSSING'S COMMON-SCHOOL HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES; from the Earliest Period to the Present Time. Illustrated by Maps and over 200 other Engravings. 378pp. 12mo. Sheldon & Co., New York.

BARNES'S BRIEF HISTORY OF THE UNITED STATES. An Attractive One-Term History for Schools. 336 pp. 12mo. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

BROOKS'S NORMAL ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA: Containing the First Principles of the Science, developed with Conciseness and Simplicity. 287pp. 12mo. Sower, Potts & Co., Philadelphia.

POTTER'S MANUAL OF READING. In Four Parts: Othophony, Class Methods, Gesture, and Elocution. Designed for Teachers and Students. 420pp. 12mo. Harper & Brothers, New York.

KEETELS'S ORAL METHOD WITH GERMAN. 348pp. 12mo. Leypoldt, Holt & Williams, New York.

PERKINS'S SONG ECHO: A Collection of Copyright Songs, Duets, Trios, and Sacred Pieces, suitable for Public Schools, Juvenile Classes, Seminaries, and the Home Circle. 268pp. 12mo. J. L. Peters, New York.

HADLEY'S LESSONS IN LANGUAGE: An Introduction to the Study of English Grammar. 138pp. 12mo. Illustrated. Hadley Brothers, Chicago. 1871.

HOTZE'S FIRST LESSONS IN PHYSICS. For Use in the Upper Grades of Our Common Schools. 172pp. 13mo. Hendricks & Chittenden, St. Louis. 1871.

COOLEY'S ELEMENTS OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. For Common and High Schools. 175pp. 12mo. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

COOLEY'S EASY EXPERIMENTS IN PHYSICAL SCIENCE. For Oral Instruction in Common Schools. 86pp. 12mo. Charles Scribner & Co., New York.

WADDELL'S LATIN GRAMMAR FOR BEGINNERS. A Companion to the Author's G Grammar for Beginners. 86pp. 12mo. Harper & Brothers, New York.

WORMAN'S GERMAN COPY-BOOKS, in Five Numbers. Edited by H. E. Hayes. P 20 cts. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

JELLIFFE'S GOOD SELECTIONS in Prose and Poetry. For use in Schools and Ac emies, Home and Church Sociables, Lyceums and Literary Societies, etc. J. Schermerhorn & Co., New York.

NORTHEND'S CHILD'S SPEAKER; being a Collection of Pieces for Recital in Prim Schools. 178pp. 16mo. Price 60 cts. A. S. Barnes & Co., New York.

SHAW'S CHOICE SPECIMENS OF AMERICAN LITERATURE. Brief Selections from t Chief American Writers. Adapted for use as an Independent School Reader. 224 12mo. Sheldon & Co., New York.

JOYNE'S ATHALIE: A Tragedy by J. Racine. With a Complete Commentary f the use of Students. Second Edition, revised. 118pp. 12 mo. Holt & Willia New York.

CHASE & STUART'S CICERO DE SENECTUTE ET DE AMICITIA. With Explanato Notes. Edited by Profs. E. P. Crowell and H. B. Richardson, Amherst Colle 172pp. 16mo. Eldredge & Bro., Philadelphia.

HUNT'S COUNTRY TEACHER. A Practical Manual for Teachers of Country School 40pp. 8vo. Price 25 cts. Published by Jonathan Hunt, Monroeville, O.

ADDRESSES AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS, at t Sessions at Cleveland, 1870. 260pp. 8vo. James S. Holmes, Publisher, Washi ton, D. C.

WHITE'S TEACHER'S CLASS RECORD. Ruled for Twelve Weeks, with Monthly Foo ings; Thirty Lines to the Page. 64pp. cap 4to.

WHITE'S PUPIL'S DAILY RECORD. Designed to last One Year, with Weekly a Monthly Abstracts. 36pp. cap 8 vo.

SCIENTIFIC VENTILATION; or Ventilation Based upon the Motive Power of Hea With Illustrations. Published by the Bennett Hot Air Furnace Company, Cinci nati, Ohio.

MICHIGAN SCHOOL REPORT FOR 1870: Thirty-fourth Annual Report of the Supe intendent of Public Instruction, with Accompanying Documents. 350pp. 8vo. Hosford, Supt.

OWEN'S MAP OF THE SOLAR SYSTEM AND SIGNS OF THE ZODIAC: Containing also t Comparative Sizes of the Planets and Other Useful Information. It is neat mounted as a Wall Map, and is sufficiently large to be seen by all the pupils of ordinary class. Price 50 cts. Published by G. Owen, Boston.

GRADUATED CHECK REWARDS: For the Government of Schools and the Exact Ran ing of Each Scholar. Printed on Beautifully Tinted Bristol Board. Price 75 c Hoyt, Fogg & Breed, Portland, Me.

WASHINGTON IRVING AND HIS FRIENDS. A Superd Steel Plate Engraving—28 38 inches. Executed in London from Portraits Painted from Life. Prices: Ind Proofs, $15; Plain Impressions, $5. Estill & Co., Publishers, Mansfield, O.

CHARLES C. CHATFIELD & Co., of New Haven, have published the last two sermo preached by President Woolsey, before retiring from the Presidency of Yale. O of them is his farewell sermon delivered July 2, and the other, his last baccalau ate, delivered July 9. They are printed in elegant style, and bound up in pap (60 cents) and in cloth ($1.00).

THE

NATIONAL TEACHER.

E. E. WHITE, Editor.

VOL 1. OCTOBER, 1871. No. 13.

THE NEW EDUCATION.

BY W. H. WYNN.

It is important, above all things, that the teacher should have ome clearly defined notions of the nature, capabilities, and requirements of the material upon which he works. He must have ome conception of the human mind in general, and a keen perception of human nature in particular, to succeed well in his ask. Although there is a class of the teaching community, ways discouragingly large, who enter the profession with no ve for the work, adopting it simply because nothing else comes conveniently to hand to minister to the present necessities of ie body, and who are, therefore, always ready to accept any econd-hand or hap-hazard routine in the school-room that will elp through with the stated hours of confinement that must be pent with the children, there is, nevertheless, an influential nd growing body of highly cultured men and women in this ountry, who have devoted themselves wholly and enthusiastically to the profession. To these the question of method and the hilosophy of their work are matters of the profoundest interest. These persons give tone and character to the business. They re in communication with the leading scientific and philosophic thinkers of the age, and carry down their alleged discoveries nto the practical arena of pedagogics, where, at least, their validity and true value can only be thoroughly tested.

In this way it results, that the popular conception of education, the prevailing theory and methods of teaching, catch the hue, and are largely the exponents, of the dominant speculative thinking of the times; and so also it must come to pass, at special epochs, when there is extraordinary activity among the loftier intellects of the age, and their discoveries are many and brilliant, and their opinions widely divergent and conflicting, that education is the one great battle-field on which the contending parties seek their laurels. The consequence is that, for a time, every thing is thrown into the wildest confusion. Old and new methods clash. Extreme radical and conservative views hunt each other down at all points of the compass. There is a rage with some and a reckless abandon with others. Novelty creates a fever in some quarter, and in others there is a disposition to suspect every untried project as a scheme of visionary adventure. Fanaticism and professional weakness chasing their hobbies; fogyism and credulity; a mania for experiment, which has not unfrequently been known to introduce a new method into the school-room for every passing week of the school year; the common expedient for each of the contending parties to assert an exclusive claim to whatever has proven successful on trial: these and the like evils are incident to the times of the general breaking up of the old, and a quest for the new.

And these are the times upon which our American education has fallen. Indeed, the epoch is universal, for in all countries where education forms a part of the machinery of civilization, the school system, the whole tutorial art, is struggling in the throes of a revolution. We have no word of complaint. It is the law of progress. When the storm clears away, we know that freshness and beauty will work a new era, and the cause of education will have taken a gigantic stride in the advance.

At present, the controversy between the Physiologists and the Psychologists, between the Scientists and the Gymnasts, is about at its height. Their differences in theory are easily defined; but when it comes to deciding to what extent each party is entitled to credit for the salutary reforms in method, which have already been accomplished, and how much confidence is to be reposed in either for future counsel and direction, the task is one of no little trial and confusion.

Let us test the *animus* of these contending parties before the tribunal of their own avowed psychological principles.

Shall the child be trained from the beginning only to the

attainment of useful knowledge, scientifically arranged, and aiming at mental discipline, subordinated always to the ends of practical utility in life, or shall mental discipline be predominantly the object, and the order of the child's studies be such as will *draw out* certain well defined and specifically numerated mental faculties he is supposed to possess? This is the issue—a contest between faculties and no faculties; a question whether consciousness or physiology shall be the presiding genius of the school-room. Associationists, as they are called, headed by such eminent philosophical thinkers as John Stuart Mill and Herbert Spencer; and the Physiologists, led off by such thoroughly scientific minds as Huxley, Carpenter, Paget, Draper, Mandsley, and Youmans, and embracing in their ranks almost all the great *savans* of the present age, have combined with singular unanimity, and an earnestness that is desperate, against the long established curriculum in our higher institutions of learning. Let us wish them success in bringing about a much needed reform in this direction. Science is entitled to a place of preëminence in University and College education, which she does not now possess. So brilliant, so wonderful, so unprecedented, are her recent revelations, that we cheerfully yield her the domain she has conquered, and readily consent that she shall work whatever transformations on man and nature she legitimately may.

But the oracles of her priests, we need not always implicitly accept. These men all hold, in a descending scale of increasing grossness, from John Stuart Mill down to Bain and Mandsley, that the mind is somehow one with the body, that it is not a separate, spiritual entity, and that its entire constitution and whole philosophy are discoverable only through anatomical probings and microscopical researches into the functions of the brain. Cerebration! that is all; or, if there be any thing more refined than this, it is such only as can be cousin-german to it. Metaphysics are to be dismissed, and henceforth all mental processes are to be designated by the unwonted terms of the *differentiation* and *integration* of the nervous tissues. The teacher must enter the school-room, banishing forcibly from his mind the old idea of separate mental faculties, and a distinct spiritual organism, superior to the body, but dwelling in it; and the child is to be held as a compact physiological unit, the laws of whose being, and the modes of whose development, are ascertainable only from scientific researches into the structure, growth, and transformations of the nervous matter constituting the brain. Pro-

fessor Youmans says that the brain "consists of hundreds of millions of cells and fibers, organized into symmetrical order, so as to produce innumerable connections, crossings and junctions of exquisite delicacy. The simple elements of mind are built up into complex knowledge by the law of the association of ideas, *and the mental associations are formed by combinations of currents in the brain, and are made permanent by the growth and modification of cells at the points of union.*"

Before me lies a small volume entitled "The First Book in Botany," designed to cultivate the observing powers of the children, prepared and published by a sister of Prof. Youmans. It is a model of its kind; but it is followed by an elaborate dissertation* on the main features of the New Education, in which the writer openly espouses the theory of evolution, simplifies and illustrates its principles, and urges that it be accepted for the reorganization of our methods of primary instruction. The favorite ideas of growth, limitation, and repetition are felicitously enforced. An idea grows as a bone grows. The ultimate elements of mind are not the mental faculties, about which the old metaphysicians were wont to discourse so learnedly and foggily; all mental processes are reduced to the perception of likenesses and differences among the things which discharge their forces upon the brain. Attend to her words:

"While the organic world is made up almost entirely of but four chemical elements, the intellectual world is constituted wholly of but *two* ultimate elements, the perception of likeness and the perception of difference among objects of thought. These elements are wrought into the mental constitution through the direct observation and experience of things. *Mind is called forth by the spontaneous interactions of the growing organism and the agencies and objects of surrounding nature.*"

With the fundamental postulates of this theory we cannot agree. We confess to an unsuppressed feeling of revulsion against any system of philosophy that will reduce the mind to an abstraction, or make it only a higher and more complex differentiation of the nerve-force of the body. It is a bad companion for the teacher in his noble work. We have no disposition to embarrass the salutary reforms it so untiringly pushes in the region of practical pedagogics. We devoutly hope that its special tenets of growth and limitation may supplant the evil of "cramming," now so prevalent in the schools of our country; that the paralyzing practice of mere lesson-learning may be replaced with the actual study of things, brought directly before the eyes of

[*This essay is not included in the latest edition.—EDITOR.]

the children; that it may achieve whatever success it may desire in organizing the scientific elements of study so as to gain thereby the largest possible advantages to the mind of the pupil. But we can not attribute these reformatory movements to the sole paternity of this new scientific theory of education. Moreover, it chills us. If this be no argument, it is still an instinct; and we can not avoid the conviction that, if this should become the controlling spirit of the methods in our schools, it must clip the wings of enthusiasm for the teacher, and let his whole vocation down, at last, into the slums of materialism.

Of course, we must not come reluctantly to any of the discoveries of Science. If it be true that "mental associations are formed by combinations of currents in the brain, and are made permanent by the growth and modification of the cells at the points of union," according to Prof. Youmans; or, according to his accomplished sister, that "mind is called forth by the spontaneous interactions of the growing organism, and the agencies and objects of surrounding nature"; if Science, and not Necromancy, shall assure us of these facts, we shall be swift to record our names as proselytes of the Gate, and sacrifice everything that our children may have the benefit of these remarkable discoveries. It must get into the living brain, and bring us back a live report. Until then, we do most emphatically demur. Meantime, it is the duty of the teacher to accept whatever solid, practical contribution may be made to his profession from this or any other quarter.

Des Moines, Iowa.

MANNERS IN THE SCHOOL.

If we have been much in what the world calls *society*, and have studied manners from motives, the only true way, we must have observed that much which passes for politeness lacks "the true ring." It is a strangely mingled compound of every form of deception, formality, and soulless ceremony. It is polished, because abounding in policy; complacent, when most deceiving; courteous, when most given to flattery; and elegant, when making most display. But true courtesy is founded upon the golden rule; its precepts pervade the heart, having a softening, polishing power, and also becoming our best code of morals. It is the reflex of

Christianity in the soul; the consciousness of Divinity gleaming through our human natures. If politeness must begin *in* and radiate *from* the heart, making its possessor in every way more like the blessed Master, should it not form a distinctive part of school training?

As a nation, are we not less polite than intelligent? Is not the American mind deficient in courtesy and reverence? With "Excelsior" for a motto, each is elbowing his way upward, too regardless of everything that does not afford a stepping-stone to the wealth, influence, reputation, and power, which he covets. Can we wonder that "*Young* America" is fast? We feel this deficiency in the home circle and out through all the ramifications of society and government. He who holds an office, ecclesiastical or executive, from trustee to bishop, from school director to president, without being a target for personal abuse, must meet the command, "Be ye wise as serpents and harmless as doves." The youth is a rare exception, who honors father and mother; who seeks the comfort of brothers and sisters before his own; who is obedient, respectful, and teachable in school; who is deferential to the aged, civil to strangers, and unassuming in society; who manifests a desire to please, and avoids whatever may give pain; who knows his own position, and has dignity of character to sustain it, without toadying to those above, or shunning those beneath him.

Gathered into our public schools are children from all grades of society—from homes of wealth and refinement, as well as from haunts of poverty, ignorance, and degredation, where culture of mind or manner is unknown. The development of the minds of such children will be easy, compared with the culture of the heart and its outward expression in manner and bearing; but where are they to get this training if it be not given in school? Shall it be neglected, even though we have a minute less each day for grammar and arithmetic?

It is not necessary to specify the numerous ways in which children may be taught to be kind and courteous. The first aim of the teacher should be to dispel *selfishness*. It has been truly said that, "No ray of glory lights the breast that beats for self alone." Divine love and truth fall upon such hearts as the sunlight falls upon snow-capped mountain peaks; standing cold, and bleak, and lone, they are not penetrated. But children may be taught to exercise a delicate and thoughtful attention to the comfort and pleasure of others; and they may be made to feel

t a day in which they have not done something to promote happiness of those around them, is a day lost.

he second aim should be to secure *ease* and *grace*. Persons er in their ideas as to what constitutes a pleasing bearing, how it may be obtained. Some, we judge, think it may be on, as people do their "Sunday clothes"; others, that it is a of accomplishment to be displayed in company. A few ap- to think it can only be acquired at fashionable boarding- ols, where the light poured upon heart and mind too often nbles the moonlight, which, though covering only mildews defects, presents a pleasing surface. But we believe that the place to cultivate manners is in our public schools, which their genial, life-giving influence into the hovel, the garret, ellar, as well as into homes of ease and plenty. They can ll the spirit of true politeness, kind, generous, truthful, that grow with the growth and strengthen with the strength of hildren, and eventually assume the dignity of polished and vated manhood and womanhood, the spiritual leading the oral, not trammeled by heartless conventionalities, but nding fast in the liberty wherewith Christ hath made them "

ie third and highest aim is to *fit for usefulness*. True polite- is a source of potent influence for good. Its power is that ample, which calls into exercise the higher and nobler attri- s of human nature. Teach a child that by any exhibition of urtesy he not only loses the esteem of his playmates, but ts an injury by arousing in them unlovely traits of charac- and you have given him a twofold incentive to correct de- nent.

us far, we have not considered the difficulties in the way of training. Frequently, home example destroys all good s of the daily instruction of the teacher. Even when parents n sympathy with teachers, they some times use little dis- ination in the choice of companions for their children. They rently forget that "evil communications corrupt good man- " Glad to be rid of their noise and annoyance, they send into the streets for a playground, where they are exposed mptation and wicked company, and form rude, boisterous, rreverent habits.

e teacher may well ask, "Can a few hours' influence for five each week, counteract these evils?" "After the seed time th the harvest," and they who in faith scatter the seed, shall

find that not all has fallen by the wayside or among thorns. *If* we love our country, we shall find a strong incentive in the duty to meet her demand for pure, true, faithful, and cultivated men and women, who shall be governed by enlightened reason and conscience, rather than by prejudice and passion. If the approaching generation does not meet this demand, in what measure will the teachers of the country be responsible?

Akron, Ohio. C. J.

A COMMON-SENSE GRAMMAR.

To the Editor of The National Teacher:

With this I transmit to you a skeleton form of what I conceive to be an English Grammar; that is, the old second and third parts, formerly called *Etymology* and *Syntax*. You will observe that I have condensed pretty closely. I have done this to save space for you, and to show how closely the subject may be compressed. In doing this, I have made it a rule to throw out all technical terms, that are not necessary to a proper understanding of the Rules of Syntax. Thus, I have omitted the distinction between *proper* and *common* nouns, as wholly unnecessary to any grammar, and I have left out *gender*, because it is not necessary to English grammar. I have avoided all needless sub-divisions, such as *demonstrative adjectives, interrogative pronouns, copulative, disjunctive, constative conjunctions*, etc., as they hinder the memory and weary the pupil, but serve no good end. These subtle distinctions of terms will find a more suitable place in a treatise on metaphysics than in a common-school grammar. In submitting this outline to your readers, who are mostly teachers, I would remark that I have availed myself of their knowledge of the subject to dispense with many of the minutiæ that would be necessary in a book to be used in school; though I believe a teacher could get along with this alone. Owing to the fact that our language is almost a "grammarless tongue," a correct and complete idea of our grammar can only be presented in a parallel with the grammar of one of the old languages; and, if I were preparing a grammar for common schools, I would make it a parallel of Latin and English, so that I could show what grammar is, and how much of it really applies to English. I am satisfied that we can not give a proper idea of the subject in English alone, as our present school grammars abundantly prove. But I submit the following to your consideration, in an earnest effort to contribute—as I believe it every man's duty to do—a share of what I have observed, to the general stock. W. C. Howells.

Grammar is that science of words which teaches their relation to each other as they are framed into sentences, and prescribes rules for their proper arrangement in composition.

For convenience in the application of the rules of Grammar, all the words in use are classified upon the principles and according to the laws by which they are employed in speaking or writing. Grammarians have found that there are in English and most of modern languages, nine distinctly marked classes of words, to which they have applied the term, *Parts of Speech*.

› are called Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, Articles, ›uns, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

When children, or persons placed among people speaking a ge tongue, begin to talk, they commence by calling things eir names, whether these be the names of individual per- ›r places, or the names of things or ideas. In doing this, use the class of words that grammarians call *Nouns;* as , *John Smith*, *sun*, *bird*, *life*, *goodness*.

At the next step in the use of words, we apply to the › of things, or *Nouns*, words of another class, to express qualities; and we say, *beautiful* Paris, *good* John Smith, sun, *red* birds. These words, because they are joined to s in this manner, are called *Adjectives;* and all words ex- ve of the qualities of things are Adjectives.

After we have named a thing, by using a Noun, and de- d its qualities by the use of an Adjective, we contemplate thing as performing some act, as doing some thing; and to this, we employ another class of words, known as *Verbs.* putting together the three classes of words, we say: Good Smith *works;* Red birds *fly*.

When we have named a thing with a Noun, and said of kind it is with an Adjective, and told what it did by using b, we employ a word of a fourth class, called *Adverbs*, to › the manner in which an action is performed, as expressed e Verb, or to modify the quality expressed by the Adjective; › say: The *greatly* good John Smith works *diligently*; The ed birds fly *swiftly*. The Adverb bears a relation to the and Adjective similar to that of the Adjective to the . In English, the addition of *ly* (being an abreviation of ›o an Adjective, changes it to an Adverb; and nearly all our › ending in *ly* are Adverbs.

As we progress in handling words, we find it convenient › a class of them to point out or direct to Nouns, or to ›er them. These we call *Articles*. *This*, *that*, *these*, *those*, , *what*, *the*, *each*, *every*, *a*, *an*, *one*, *two*, *three*, etc., are Arti- We say: *This* man, *that* house, *two* shoes, *the* world, *an* , *every* day, *each* moment.

Provided with one class of words to express the names of s, the Noun; another to describe the qualities of things, the ›tive; a third to report what is done, the Verb; a fourth to *ow* it is done, the Adverb; and a fifth to point out or num- ›e things named, the Article; we resort to a class of words

called *Pronouns*, because used instead of Nouns, to save us from repeating the names of persons and things, and thus improve our style of speaking. This is a small class of words, but of great importance, because of its constant use. *I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they, who, which, my, thy, his, its, our, their, me, thee, him, her, us, them, whose, whom*, are nearly all the pronouns in English. We say: John Smith, *who* works for *us*; *we* love *him* for *his* worth, *which* is great.

VII. In framing language into what we call good composition, we require a class of words to connect the leading words of sentences, and to show the relation they have to other words. This is effected by what are called *Prepositions*, of which there are but few in any language. They are most easily learned by a list of them. *In, with, to, by, for, from, over, under*, and about forty others, complete the list. We say: The man runs *from* the island *to* the shore, *through* the water.

VIII. To connect words and sentences, we use a class of words called *Conjunctions*, the purpose of which is obvious in their meaning. *And, or, neither, nor, either, than, but*, and a few others, are the Conjunctions.

X. Those ejaculatory expressions of pain, joy, wonder, or any emotion, that can scarcely be called words, as they have no meaning in themselves, as *Oh, Ah, Alas*, etc., are classed under the term, *Interjection*.

These *Parts of Speech*, so readily separable into distinct classes, are summed up as follows:

1. NOUNS, embracing all *names* of things, places, persons, and ideas.

2. ADJECTIVES, the words which express the *qualities* of *things*.

3. VERBS, the words that express *action*.

4. ADVERBS, words defining the *manner* of action and the *degree* of qualities.

5. ARTICLES, the words used to point out and number things.

6. PRONOUNS, words used instead of nouns, to *save the repetition* of the names of things.

7. PREPOSITIONS, to show the relation of words to each other.

8. CONJUNCTIONS, used to connect words.

9. INTERJECTIONS, which are emotional expressions.

We use some of all these classes of words to say:

5 4 2 1 3 4 7 6 8 6
"The very industrious man labors diligently for us, and he
4 3 6 9 4 4 2
thus makes himself, alas! too often, poor."

·ds undergo certain changes, according to the manner in they are used in connexion with other words, which are *Inflections.* Some times these changes extend to the form words; but, in English, these inflections affect the forms ds but slightly.

ns and pronouns are varied in this way by what is termed r, *Person*, and *Case.*

e are two *Numbers:* the *Singular*, when the word is ex- e of only one thing, as *man, horse, I, thou, he, she, it;* and *ral*, when more than one is meant, as *men, horses, we, you,* With a few exceptions, the plural form of Nouns is made ıe singular by adding to it *s* or *es*, as *post, posts, ax, axes.* ıre also irregular forms of plural and singular nouns, as ı, *mouse, mice.* The number of pronouns is chiefly deter- by the form of the word.

n is determined by the *manner* in which Nouns are spoken the *form* of Pronouns. There are three *persons:* the per- aking, as *my, me, we, our, us*, is the first person. It does ›ly to Nouns. When a Noun or Pronoun denotes the per- ken *to*, it is in the second person, as *thou, thy, thee, you,* , *Mr. Speaker, ye winds.* When a Noun or Pronoun de- he person or thing spoken of, it is in the third person, as *it, his, him, they, their, them*, the *man*, a *dog.*

is the condition of Nouns and Pronouns according to elations to actions and other Nouns. There are three he *Nominative*, the *Possessive*, and the *Objective.* A simple nt of a complete action is a sentence, in which there must ıounced an agent or actor, a Verb expressing the action, object upon which the action is performed. A full sen- made up of a Noun or Pronoun in the *Nominative* case, ıames the agent or actor; a Verb, expressive of the action, Noun or Pronoun in the *Objective* case, having the object h the action is directed. Thus we say: "Camels carry s." This is a sentence, and would be analyzed or *parsed* way: "*Camels*" is a Noun in the *plural number*, (camel he *singular* form of the word); it is in the *third person*, be- ken of, and is in the Nominative case, as it is the agent r. "*Carry*" is a Verb, stating the act, and "*burdens*" is a n the *plural* number, *third* person, and *Objective*, being ect of the Verb "*carry.*"

ıs and pronouns, which are the agents in a sentence, are Nominative case; when they are the objects of an act, they

are in the Objective case, and when a Noun or Pronoun is connected with a Noun so as to convey the idea of possession, the first is in the Possessive case, as *my* hat, the *man's* horse, *Smith's* house. The Possessive case of Nouns is indicated by the addition of *'s* or '.

These variations are called *Declensions*, and they are most noticeable in the Pronouns.

Nouns are declined thus:

Cases.	Singular Number.	Plural Number.
Nominative,	Man,	Men.
Possessive,	Man's,	Men's.
Objective,	Man,	Men.

It will be observed that the form of the Nominative and Objective cases of Nouns is the same, while the Pronouns are varied in the form of the words, being declined as follows:

	First Person.		Second Person.		Third Person.	
Cases.	*Singular.*	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
Nom.,	I,	We,	Thou,	Ye or You,	He, she, or it,	They,
Pos.,	My or mine,	Our,	Thy or thine,	Your,	His, her, its,	Their.
Obj.,	Me.	Us.	Thee.	Ye or you.	Him, her, it.	Them.

Ours, *yours*, and *theirs*, are compound forms of the Pronoun, including the possessive, and the thing supposed to be possessed, and in this form are either Nominative or Objective. The Relative Pronouns *who* and *which* are declined in this manner

	Singular and Plural.	*Singular and Plural.*
Nominative,	Who.	Which.
Possessive,	Whose.	Whose.
Objective,	Whom,	Whom.

Who, *which*, *that*, and *what* are called Relative Pronouns, though the three latter are also *Articles*. *Who* relates to persons, *which* to things, and *what* and *that* to either persons or things.

Adjectives are subject to changes of form, to express degrees of quality, called *Degrees of Comparison*. The *Positive degree* is the simple statement of a quality, as *rich;* the *Comparative degree* expresses an increase of the quality, as *richer;* and the *Superlative degree* is expressive of the extent of the quality, as *richest*. These degrees are usually formed by adding *er* and *est* to an Adjective, if of one syllable, or prefixing *more* and *most* to those of more than one syllable; though this rule is subject to the taste of a writer or speaker, as it is preferable to say *holier* and *holiest* to *more holy* and *most holy*.

Verbs are varied by *Modes* and *Tenses*, to indicate manner of

action and time, and by Number and Person, to agree with the Nouns and Pronouns to which they are related.

Mode is expressive of the *manner* of action, and *Tense* indicates the *time* of it. This variation is called *Conjugation* and in some languages, particularly the more ancient, the changes of the Verb by conjugation are very great, but they are much less in modern tongues, and in English there is scarcely any conjugation, the ideas expressed in the old languages by changes of the Verb, being expressed with us by combining the Verb with other words.

We have only three Modes: the *Indicative*, which simply states the performance of an action, as *he writes*: the *Imperative*, which gives a command, as *write ye;* and the *Infinitive*, the most general form of the act, as *to write.*

Our *Tenses* are the natural divisions of time into *Past*, *Present*, and *Future*, as *I wrote*, *I write*, *to write.*

Verbs are said to be *Regular*, when their past tense is formed by adding *d* or *ed* to the present, and *Irregular*, when not so formed. In studying Grammar, it is well to have a list of Irregular Verbs, from a grammar or dictionary.

From every Verb there are derived two words called *Participles*: the *Present*, which is formed by adding *ing*, as from work, *working*, and the *Past* by adding *ed* or *d*, as *worked*. These Participles, in their grammatical relations, are always to be treated as Nouns or Adjectives. The first is the *name* of the act of the Verb, and the second expresses the *quality* which the act of the Verb imparts to an object, as we say: The painter *paints* the house, and by the *painting* it becomes a *painted* house. The number and person of Verbs is only a change in agreement with the Nominative, chiefly for the sake of euphony, as when we say: The bird sings, if we wish to use the plural of *bird*, we add *s* to it, and take it from the verb *sings*, and say: The *birds sing.* This transition of the *s* is the only effect of number and person on our Verbs, except in the solemn style, when *est* is added to the Verb after thou.

There are some Verbs whose chief use is to assist others in rendering the expression more definite, which are called *Auxiliary* Verbs. Among these may be classed *do*, *may*, *can*, *will*, *shall*, *ught*, with their variations. *Have* is used in this manner also, but it is not strictly an Auxiliary.

The Verb *to be* is peculiar to itself, as it is more varied than the others, and does not convey the idea of action, but rather of existence or status, and does not govern an objective case after it.

The variation of Verbs is called Conjugation, of which th lowing are examples, as they take place in English :

TO HAVE: INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Person,	I have.	We have.
Second Person,	Thou hast.	Ye or you have.
Third Person,	He, she, or it has.	They have.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Person,	I had.	We had.
Second Person,	Thou hadst.	Ye or you had.
Third Person,	He, she, or it had.	They had.

IMPERATIVE MODE—FUTURE TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
Second Person,	Have thou.	Have ye or you.

INFINITIVE MODE, To have.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE, Having.

PAST PARTICIPLE, Had.

TO LOVE: INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Person,	I love.	We love.
Second Person,	Thou lovest.	You love.
Third Person,	He loves.	They love.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Person,	I loved.	We loved.
Second Person,	Thou lovedst.	You loved.
Third Person,	He loved.	They loved.

IMPERATIVE MODE—FUTURE TENSE, Love thou, love you.

INFINITIVE MODE, To love.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE, Loving.

PAST PARTICIPLE, Loved.

TO BE: INDICATIVE MODE.

PRESENT TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Person,	I am.	We are.
Second Person,	Thou art.	You are.
Third Person,	He is.	They are.

PAST TENSE.

	Singular.	*Plural.*
First Person,	I was.	We were.
Second Person,	Thou wert.	You were.
Third Person,	He was.	They were.

IMPERATIVE MODE—FUTURE TENSE, Be thou, Be you.

INFINITIVE MODE, To be.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE, Being.

PAST PARTICIPLE, Been.

The verb *to be* also has a contingent mode, which is always in the Present Tense, as follows:

First Person, Were I, or If I were, or If I be.
Second Person, Wert thou, or If thou wert, or If thou be.
Third Person, Were he, or If he were, or If he be.

ADVERBS are varied by degrees of comparison, as adjectives are.

ARTICLES are subject to but little variation. A few of them apply to Nouns of the singular number only, as *a*, *one*, *this*, *that*, *an*, *each*, *every*; some apply to Nouns of the plural number only, as *these*, *those*, *all*, *two*, *three*, and other numerals; while others apply to either number, as *the*, *which*, *that*, and *what*. When *which*, *that*, and *what* are used alone, they become Pronouns, and are treated as such. *What* as a Pronoun, is compound, and is equivalent to *that which*, and in parsing must be so treated.

PREPOSITIONS, CONJUNCTIONS, and INTERJECTIONS, are not subject to any variations.

SYNTAX is that department of Grammar that gives rules for correct construction of composition. The following are among the most important of its rules:

I. The Verb in a sentence must agree with its nominative in number and person, as boys *play*, a boy *plays*.

II. When the idea of ownership is given by two Nouns, as *John's hat*, the one to which the thing belongs is in the Possessive Case, and must be written with an apostrophe and *s* (*'s*), except when the word ends in *s*, in such a way as not to allow the sound of another *s*, as for *goodness' sake*, when the apostrophe only is added.

III. When a Noun or Pronoun is the object or recipient of an action, the Verb governs it in the Objective case, as, I taught *him*; he loves his *friend*.

IV. Prepositions govern the Objective case; as The house was built *for him*, *by me*.

V. When a Pronoun represents a Noun, the Noun is called its *Antecedent*; and the Pronoun must agree with its Antecedent in number and person; as "The *man who* rents these HOUSES, should occupy THEM"; but if the Pronoun relates to two antecedents in the singular, it must be in the plural; as *James* and *John* are industrious; they will grow rich.

VI. Two or more nominatives, whether singular or plural, connected by the conjunction *and*, require a plural Verb to agree with them; as *He* and *I think* alike.

VII. When two or more nominatives are connected by *or* or *nor*, the Verb must agree with the latter; as, Neither the *men* nor the *boy works*; Either the *ox* or the *cows bellow*.

VII. The Verb *to be*, through all its variations, requires the same case after it as that which next precedes it; as, *I* am *he*; *Thou* art the *man*.

IX. Nouns and Pronouns coming together, one explanatory of the other, are said to be in *Apposition*, and are in the same case; as, *Johnson* the *President* pardoned *him* the *deserter*.

X. *To*, which usually precedes the Infinitive mode, is omitted after such words as *bid*, *dare*, *see*, *feel*, *hear*, *let*, *make*, *can*, *may*, *shall*, *will*, *do*, *must*, *need*, and a few others; as, He bids me [to] go; I shall [to] rejoice; and in the numerous phrases where an auxiliary is used in connexion with a Verb to give the idea of future time, or in translating the various inflections of the verbs of the ancient languages.

XI. When words are omitted for the sake of elegance of style, the omission is called an *Ellipsis*. This should be supplied in parsing, in order to prove the correctness of the composition and show the government of the words of a sentence.

XII. When a Noun or Pronoun and Adjective are connected with the verb *to be*, the Adjective belongs to the Noun, and is expressive of some quality of the Noun; as, He is *old*; The man is *good*; I am *loved*; The work is *ruined*.

XIII. Adverbs should be used to qualify Verbs and Adjectives as, He writes *well* (not *good*); They ran *swiftly* (not *swift*.)

XIV. The Infinitive mode may be used as a Noun, and be governed like one; as, *To see* the sun is pleasant; *To be* good is *to be* happy.

THE SEVEN LAMPS OF TEACHING.

BY PROFESSOR EDWARD NORTH.

There are seven Lamps of Teaching that give brightness and glory to a toilsome path of duty; that quicken the birth of flowers and richest fruits, to take the place of gloom and barrenness.

1. There is the Lamp of Knowledge. The teacher should have a thorough knowledge of that in which he undertakes to give instruction. He should be a positive character, competent to do his own thinking independently, and not a tame enclitic in the

syntax of society. He should scorn to be in bondage to a text-book. Least of all will he try to live without books. They must furnish the food on which his intellect grows and renews its vigor. Books he will use as ministers to his hunger for knowledge. He will gratefully use them as products of human skill; as auriferous quartz, to be crushed and forced to surrender whatever of pure ore they contain.

2. There is the Lamp of Law and Order. There must be fidelity in the observance of all necessary regulations. Nor is it to be forgotten, that in a school, as in a State, "that government is the best which governs the least." A teacher whose heart is in his work, will make his own life an inspiring example of loyalty to law. He will know how to secure good order and studiousness, not so much by loud demonstrations of authority as by an unseen, gentle magnetism that captivates all hearts and wins them to studious and orderly habits. Like Livy's Evander, he will control his pupils less by official power than by personal influence and "fair allurements to learning." Jeremy Bentham's doctrine in regard to the enforcement of civil law, is still more truthful when applied to the government of a school:

> "Government ought not to do everything by force It is only the body which submits to that. Nothing but wisdom can extend its empire over the mind. When a government orders, it but gives its subjects artificial interest to obey. When it enlightens, it gives them an interior motive, the influence of which they cannot resist."

3. There is the Lamp of Patience. The duties of the teacher ought never to be discharged in a hurried, careless, or petulant manner. He should feel that he presides over vital processes, that call for the utmost watchfulness and patience. He should sit like a refiner of silver, gazing intently on the precious ore in the crucible, and be always vigilant to keep away each evil influence and to eliminate each grosser element. To make known truth by a simple, straightforward statement, may be the easiest way for the teacher, but not always the best way for the pupil. Ideas that come without research, and cost but little of time and labor in the getting, are apt to take as little time in the leaving. Ideas that cost severity of thinking become imbedded in the mind; grow to be a part of its substance, and are as prompt to obey the owner's will as are the muscles of the hand. In place of being hurriedly and transiently recorded, as with a walking-stick on the tide-washed shore, they are graven as with a chisel on everlasting granite. This patient mode of instruction is in keeping with the meaning of the word, education, which is

a drawing out and a development of what is within, rather than a mechanical pouring in of ideas from without.

4. There is the Lamp of History. This throws its light backward, and reveals sources of strength, and comfort, and guiding inspiration in the lives of great, good teachers gone before; in the kindly, searching severity of Socrates, to whom the hearts of his pupils were like the leaves of an open book; in the fair humanities of the poet Archias, with a Cicero by his side, to twine his brow with grateful laurels; in the contagious enthusiasm of quaint Roger Ascham, the tutor of Princess Elizabeth, who read with her Cicero and Livy, Plato and Sophocles, and the Greek Testament; in the vast learning of John Milton, whose outward blindness only sharpened and purified his inner vision; in the moral and intellectual nobleness of Thomas Arnold, who was a great schoolmaster because he was a great man, whose pupils loved him with all the joy of like-minded brothers, chastened by the reverence of obedient children. Nor can it be out of keeping to find an illustration of the teacher's power nearer home, in the useful, uneventful life of a man like David Prentice, whose fifty years of whole-hearted consecration to classical teaching were partly given to the youth of this city, who left abiding impressions on many of the best intellects of our State, and whose last years were sweetened by receiving a generous annuity from a few of his early pupils—two of them distinguished residents of this neighborhood—after they had gained professional and political eminence.

5. There is the Lamp of Prophecy. This throws its light forward, and helps the teacher to forecast a good career for his pupils. It helps him to shape the future success and character of the man. When John Trebonius, one of Martin Luther's teachers, was rebuked for treating his pupils with such marked courtesy, his reply told of an honest pride in his work, and faith in its good results: "When I lift my cap to my boys, I give my salutation to those who will one day be men of power." It should be a part of the teacher's creed that every boy is good for something; that his duty is to find out in what pursuit he is best fitted to succeed; to help each pupil to make the most of himself and his native gifts; to wake up and encourage what is good in his nature; to furnish nutriment and stimulus for his finer powers, and to lead him forward by kindly incitements to the dignities of a genuine manhood.

6. There is the Lamp of Enthusiasm. One has no business to

acher unless his heart is in his work, so that he will do it
y, and with his best faculties fully enlisted. If a teacher
) his work as a criminal would go to the pillory; if his
)utine of duty is a weary tread-mill, and never ennobled
ıes of hearty enthusiasm; if there is always a feeling of
e and dislike between himself and his pupils; if in
ts of confidence, when they would come near to him, and
o him of their griefs, and pleasures, and plans, an invisi-
l of ice suddenly repels them; if he is so irritated and ex-
ed by outbursts of innocent frolic, that he has a bull-dog's
: hunger for fight, it is safe to say that his more proper
·ould be in the regular army, with a rifle on his shoulder.
nally, there is the blessed Lamp of Christ's Example, to
ıe meek in judgment, to illumine what is dark in the ways of
idence. No failure need be feared for the well-trained, well-
ed, and patient intellect that looks for help to the Supreme
r; that reverently accepts the Bible as its guide-book to
y knowledge that can satisfy and save the soul; that lov-
ınd prayerfully leads the way to that highest wisdom,
beginning is the fear of the Lord, whose paths are pleas-
: and peace, whose end is life eternal.

ilton College, N. Y.

NOTE ON SIGNS.

)urpose in this brief note is to endeavor to clear away cer-
ficulties met with in the use of the ordinary signs of ope-
n arithmetic. The relations and individual capacities of
ns of addition, subtraction, multiplication, and division,
ıg comprehended, ambiguities and double interpretations
metical expressions are very common, and the writer has
tly been appealed to as to the "correct answer" in cases
imple. The use and significance of these signs are purely
of convention. Usage has, however, so nearly settled
atters, that there remains but one case which is not very
ly understood.

)ffence of mistaking the true value of such expressions as,
2, or, $18\div3+6\times4-1$, would certainly be unpardonable, it
·ell known that the sign +, or the sign —, extends over
des in its grasp all that follows until another sign, +, or
l be reached. The last expression, for instance, reduces
-1.

There only remains the reduction of the expressions found between any two consecutive signs, + or in which there sometimes twists a difficulty. Thus, how are we to interpret such expressions as, $6\times4\div2$, or, $6\div2\times3$? Now, it happens that, in any expression like the first of these, the result is the same, in whatever order the signs be used; but in the second the result may be made either 9 or 1. The first is undoubtedly correct, the rule being that in expressions containing only the signs $\times$ and $\div$, they should be used in precisely the order in which they occur. To illustrate: $4\times3\div2\times6=36$, and $15\div5+6\div2\times4-14\times3\div6=8$.

Columbus, O. T. C. M.

PRACTICAL DRILLS IN READING.

BY RICHARD EDWARDS.

In the first place, let the teacher carefully consider and study the lesson before the time for assigning it. Let its general character be studied and understood. Let there be a careful looking up of the allusions—historical, biographical, and scientific. Let the meaning of the words and the nature of the comparisons be thoughtfully examined; and, finally, let the teacher give himself a thorough practical drill in the actual reading of the selection.

Thus prepared, let him go before his class and assign the lesson. What is to be required of the pupils, must be distinctly set forth. All the points enumerated above, need not be required at once. But the work to be done must be clearly assigned. If the reading book used is prepared with questions intended for thought analysis, a certain number of these may be given as a lesson; but, if not, the teacher must prepare such questions himself, and require clear, accurate answers to them, expressed in good English. A general direction "to study the lesson" is not sufficient, especially when given to pupils who have all their lives been accustomed to a thoughtless calling of words. Such pupils find nothing in the lesson to demand study; they have not risen to the level of difficulties. The questions may be written on the blackboard for the class to copy. Great care is required in their preparation. They must be framed in such a way as to provoke the pupil to thought—as to compel a concentration of his mind upon the power and meaning of what is read. Special pains

ust be taken with paragraphs, sentences, or words liable to be isunderstood or inadequately understood. In every such case, st questions must be proposed. The burden of determining ıe right meaning must be laid upon the pupil.

When the hour for recitation arrives, the pupil should be al-ıwed to bring forward all the facts he has been able to gather, nd all the thought he has been able to develop, in answer to the uestions, subject always to the condition that his speech be good ıglish. When it appears that the pupils have mastered the ıought of the lesson, they should be required to tell how it hould be read, with what degree of force, speed, pitch, and vol-me of voice, with what kind of stress and what quality of tones. ıll changes in these respects, required in the reading, should also e pointed out, and the reasons therefor. The emphases and in-ections must be explained, as they are demanded, and the neces-ity shown in each case; and the actual reading must be made to onform to the directions thus given—the pupil must be required o illustrate his own rules in his practice.

For an illustration, suppose the selection to be James Russell ıowell's little poem, "The Heritage." Questions like the fol-owing might be proposed to the pupils as a preparation for heir reading:

Is this selection prose or poetry? How do you distinguish ıne from the other? Is this humorous or serious? Is it about ofty or common-place subjects? Does it express a high degree ıf feeling? What, then, must be the prevailing tone in reading t? Where in the poem do you find changes of sentiment, and ıonsequently a necessity for changes of tones? Show what ıhese changes of tones must be.

On the first stanza something like the following may be asked:

What "rich man's son" is meant here? What, then, is the force of the word "the"? What are meant by "piles of brick and stone and gold"? Are the hands of the rich man's son softer or whiter, simply on account of his descent, than those of the poor man? What, then, is the real thing that he "inherits"? Why does it require courage "to wear a garment old"? What other meaning has "wear," and how are the two connected in thought? What is the heritage that "one would not care to hold in fee"? What is it to "hold in fee"? Meaning of the word "care" in the last line? How comes it to have this meaning?

Give the etymology and meaning of inherit, tender, wear, garment, fee. Are there many or few words of foreign origin here?

Is a positive statement made in the first line? What in is required therefore? What words are emphatic? De the inflections in the second, third, and fourth lines in tl way as in the first line? How is it in the fifth line?

In the above, there has been no attempt to set forth a of teaching the analysis of English sounds.

Normal University, Ill.

AMERICAN READING.—To my ear, the great defect in Ar reading is its want of naturalness and simplicity; it labored, too intense, too self-conscious. As in so man cases, the prevailing habit of minutiosity has told with i here. It would be most distressing to have to listen emphatically good reading for half an hour. In Engl sin exactly in the opposite way. An incurable slove arising from the fear of appearing stilted or theatrical, a lethargic and indolent nature, spoils the reading of man of our best schools. The articulation of Americans gene very distinct; their speakers and preachers rarely fall i bad habit of dropping the voice at the end of the perio cutting off, to the listener, the thought at its most vital p *English Report.*

BOOKS.

BY W. H. VENABLE.

Books reinforce us; mighty, wise,
They deign to stand as our allies;
They aid the strong, protect the weak,
Our stammered thought they plainly speak,
They give us knowledge, give us joy,—
Lift us above mean life's annoy,
They give us solace, give us tears,
Give us the life of long-dead years;
They give our souls immortal wings
To mount o'er transitory things,
And view, as from some lofty star,
Our life and nature as they are.

Editorial Department.

—The opening paper in this number by Deputy Superintendent Wynn, Iowa, will be read with great interest by all who have given any attention to he Educational Problem." We share most fully his feeling of revulsion ainst the brain theory of the "Physiologists", and we are certainly not ready build our educational system according to its demands. We have not ierto classed John Stuart Mill with Herbert Spencer, either in his philo- hical or educational views. If we understand Mill's position, he accords he physical sciences their due value in education, but he does not give n the place of *preëminence* in university and college education. We it that our contributor should not be understood to make "the actual y of things brought before the eyes of children", the whole of elementary ation. But read his capital article.

—Mr. Howell's racy article on "The English Grammar Muddle", which ared in our March issue, contained the statement that all of English gram- necessary to be taught in common schools, could be put into ten pages of journal. In a private letter, the writer promised that if we would lend our kettle, he would boil down the huge "Series of English Grammars" ie specified bulk. We were glad to subject his radical views to a practical and so promptly lent him the kettle. The result is given in this number, gh, owing to ill health and much work, the boiling down process had to uch hurried. Our readers can judge how well Mr. Howells has fulfilled promise. By comparing his epitome with any treatise on English gram- designed for schools, it may easily be determined how much he has ted that is important in learning to speak and write the English language ectly. Several of his classifications and definitions will be new to most of readers, and the entire article will be found refreshingly original. It can fail to elicit thought and discussion. Mr. Howells is the editor of the *tabula Sentinel.* He has not been enguged in teaching for many years.

—A correspondent (D. K. T.) thinks that the teacher who, in our July , charged the phonic method with poor spelling, must have failed to give er attention to "form lessons." The pupil must not only be taught to yze words as compound sounds; but he must also be taught to observe the lifference between the alphabetic forms of words and the forms which they ld have if they were phonically written. A knowledge of the fact that the l *right* as a sound has but three elements, *r-i-t*, should help the pupil n its orthography as a form (right). The pupil is not prepared to write a l until he has mastered it as a form. We think, however, that he pushes

his theory too far, when he claims that it is essential, to enable a pupil to write a word, that he be able to analyze it as a sound, and make the letter which represents each simple sound. This is disproved by the fact that the deaf and dumb spell well—a fact alluded to by Dr. Hill in our last number. The forms of words can certainly be taught without reference to their phonic analysis, though the latter, instead of being a hindrance to the former, should be a help, and this, we believe, is corroborated by experience. We quite agree with our correspondent, and also with Mr. Watkins, that the use of words should be taught simultaneously with their spelling. The correct writing of words in sentences is an excellent spelling drill.

—— At the late meeting of the New York State Convention of School Commissioners and City Superintendents, Prof. North, of Hamilton College, delivered an address on "Teachers and Teaching", in which the necessity of special preparation for the teacher's work was strongly and happily presented. He stated, as a melancholly fact, that "a majority of common school teachers are educated for their work by their own pupils"—and at their pupils' expense. He commended the State of New York for her good beginning in providing normal instruction. Six State Normal Schools, normal classes in ninety academies, instructing each year some 2,500 teachers, and the teachers' institutes are the present normal agencies, provided by the State. He urged that the number of State Normal Schools should be at once doubled and that a permanent normal faculty should be employed to go from county to county to give instruction in the teachers' institutes. He also urged that the colleges should give special instruction in the science and art of teaching; that this would be a proper recognition of "the intrinsic dignity and importance of the teacher's profession." This is the right kind of talk, and we wish that more college professors would indulge in it. The admirable article in this number entitled "The Seven Lamps of Teaching", was the concluding portion of the address.

—— A DAILY paper gives a unique explanation of the fact that men who have received a liberal education so uniformly believe it to be valuable. This belief is due to a mental delusion. "All men are prone to affix a higher value to that in which they have been than to that in which they have not been instructed", and, hence, the only persons competent to judge of the value of a liberal education are those who have not been liberally educated. Besides, a college course of training so warps the judgment and twists the logical faculty that not even a protracted immersion in the practical business of life can straighten them. Things are not what they seem to the college graduate. He supposes that he has acquired a good when, in fact, he has received an actual injury, and so he returns a blessing for a curse. If, in spite of the mental warp received at college, he succeeds in amassing a fortune, he shows his weakness by endowing a new chair or building a library hall, thus perpetuating and augmenting the very agency that crippled him for life's work! Moreover this delusion is so complete that years of professional or business activity can not remove it. The gray-haired alumnus turns to his Alma Mater with an

appreciation as lively as the fresh graduate. The endowment funds of our colleges are largely the tribute which educated age pays to the worth of liberal culture. This explanation accounts for a fact which has sometimes puzzled us, to wit, that those who have never been inside of a college are loudest and most positive in denouncing the college curriculum. On this subject they are of right Sir Oracle, since men possessing liberal culture are thereby disqualfied to judge of its value. Uncover your heads, ye college graduates, when you stand in the presence of untutored wisdom!

—We are glad to see the introduction of formal language lessons into our schools, but we are sorry to notice that the instruction is still so haphazard and fruitless. It is not enough that pupils be occasionally required to write sentences, but these sentences should be *properly written.* To this end, every written exercise must be *carefully corrected by the teacher, and neatly copied by the pupil.* Nor should this instruction end with the writing of separate sentences. The pupil must be taught to express consecutive thoughts—to write a succession of sentences. This involves the breaking of a page into paragraphs, the division of the several paragraphs into sentences, and the proper use of capital letters and punctuation marks. The suspension of language lessons before this skill is acquired, is to prepare the soil and sow seed and then fail to gather the harvest. We are safe in saying that a majority of the pupils in our high schools can not write a simple letter in a creditable manner. They do not know when they have written either a sentence or a parapraph, and, hence, can not use correctly either capitals or periods, to say nothing of commas, semi-colons, dashes, etc. There is still a culpable neglect of composition in our grammar and high schools. If our pupils can not have more of language without taking less of technical grammar, give them the language. It is a better mental discipline, and, at the same time, is of greater practical utility. Moreover, the study of technical grammar should be preceded by a thorough and progressive course of training in the use of language. Composition is the natural introduction to grammar.

THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CONVENTION.

We have briefly noticed the annual meeting of this body, held at St. Louis in August last. We now add a brief account of the proceedings:

GENERAL ASSOCIATION.

The Association was cordially welcomed to St. Louis by Governor B. Gratz Brown, who, after highly complimenting the "Great City of the West" and the State of Missouri for their liberal provision for public education, proceeded to controvert the current opinion that education promotes virtue and morality and is the safeguard of republics. He assumed that education, "as now engineered," is "confined merely to the acquisition of knowledge," and, from this false assumption, he argued that education only changes the forms of crime, that it fosters "acute knaveries." The remedy suggested was the teaching of

"the actual compensations of nature; in taking the criminal code into your schools and collating the action with the retribution; in demonstrating virtue as its own best reward, not by axiom, but by illustration, and in showing forth by suitable methods that wrong is ever miscalculation, and therefore foreign to the first law of education." This passage in the Governor's address provoked not a little unfavorable criticism, and, in subsequent sessions, it was sharply reviewed by Commissioner Eaton, Prof. Phelps, Supt. Harris, and others. The Governor also urged Herbert Spencer's views respecting the study of the physical and social sciences, and touched upon several other professional topics. President Pickard happily responded, and then introduced those chosen to preside over the several sections, each of whom made a brief address.

In the evening, Hon. J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, delivered an able address on "*A National Compulsory System of Education Impracticable and Un-American.*" He gave a very full analysis of the bill introduced into the last Congress by Mr. Hoar, of Massachusetts, and condemned the measure as ill-advised and mischievous. He urged that the scheme to establish a national system of education is in opposition to the theory and uniform practice of the National Government; to the views of the founders of the Republic and of its leading statesmen, and to a sound political philosophy. He approved of the policy of the National Government's aiding public education in the South by conditional appropriations of land or money.

The subject was subsequently discussed by Messrs. Beckington, of Missouri, Platt, of Kansas, Rolfe, of Illinois, Henderson, of Arkansas, and others. Commissioner Eaton was called out, but declined to express an opinion on the merits of Mr. Hoar's Bill. He made an encouraging statement respecting the progress and condition of the free-school systems of the South, and favored their financial assistance by Congress.

The following resolution, offered by Mr. Wickersham, was unanimously adopted:

Resolved, That this Association will look with favor upon any plan of giving pecuniary aid to the struggling educational systems of the South, that the General Government may deem judicious.

The next question considered was, "*How far May a State Provide for the Education of Her Children at Public Cost?*" The discussion was opened by Hon. Newton Bateman, of Illinois, who, in an able and eloquent paper, urged that the State should make the most liberal provision for public education, including higher education. He concluded thus:

"The question for American statesmen is not how *little*, but how *much* can the State properly do for the education of her children; that the one thing most precious in the sight of God and of good men is the welfare and growth of the immortal mind, and that, to do this, legislatures should go to the verge of their constitutional powers, courts to the limits of liberality of construction, and executives to the extreme of official prerogatives. I believe that an American State can and should supplant the district school with the high school, and the high school with the university, all at the public cost—exhibiting to the world the noblest privilege of the country—a *model free-school system—totus teres atque rotundus.*"

Supt. Wm. Harris, of St. Louis, followed with an able and scholarly paper. He reviewed the recent events in Europe, finding education to be their explan-

ion. The immense efforts made all over Europe to found a system of *indus-ial* education are made for the preservation and defense of the monarchial stem. But the people will not long submit to be educated simply as direct-s of machines and instrumentalities of industry. Their education will stop nothing short of that spiritual culture which prepares for self-government the realm of social, moral, and intellectual existence. He next considered e nature of the State, and its limits and prerogatives, and the nature of edu-tion and its relation to the individual, to society at large, and to the State, th this conclusion:

"The government of a republic must educate *all* its people, and it must educate em so far that they are able to educate *themselves* in a continued process of culture, tending through life. This implies the existence of *higher institutions of public ication*. And these, not so much with the expectation that all will attend them, that the lower schools, which are more initiatory in their character, and deal with r elements, depend for their efficiency upon the organization of higher institutions their direction and control. Without the education in higher institutions of the chers of lower schools, and, furthermore, without the possibility hovering before pils of ascent into the higher schools, there can be no practical effect given to pri-ry schools."

Mr. Harris closed his paper with a brief reference to the question of the rality of public education. His concluding sentences were as follows:

"The discipline of our public schools, wherein punctuality and regularity are en-ed, and the pupils are continually taught to *suppress mere self-will* and inclina-, is the best school of morality. Self-control is the basis of all moral virtues, industrious habits are the highest qualities we can form in our children. A free, -conscious, self-controlled manhood is to be produced only through universal lic education at public cost, and, as this is the object of our government, it is per for *our* government to provide this means, and at the cost of the people."

r. John W. Hoyt, of Wisconsin, presented the report of the committee, ap-nted last year, on an *American University*. It stated very concisely the ditions and general features of such an institution. It suggested that the inal endowment should not be less than ten millions of dollars, and its nagement should secure the coöperation of the citizen, the State, and the neral Government. The history of the idea of such a central institution, the authority of Congress to establish and endow it, were briefly presented. report concluded with the recommendation that another committee be ap-nted to conduct the enterprise to a successful issue, which was adopted.

he President appointed Dr. J. W. Hoyt, Wisconsin; Dr. Thomas Hill, sachusetts; E L. Godkin, Esq., New York; Hon. J. P. Wickersham, nsylvania; Dr. Barnas Sears, Virginia; Col. D. F. Boyd, Louisiana; Dr. iel Read, Missouri; Prof. Wm F. Phelps, Minnesota; Hon. A. Gibbs, Ore-; Hon. Newton Bateman, Illinois; and as *ex-officio* members, E. E. White, sident National Educational Association; Hon. John Eaton, National Com-sioner of Education; Dr. Joseph Henry, President National Academy of nce; Dr. J. Lawrence Smith, President American Association for the Ad-cement of Science; and Dr. Samuel Elliot, President American Social nce Association.

homas Davidson, of St. Louis, read a paper on *Pedagogical Bibliography*. divided the history of educational literature into three great periods—the dhood, youth, and manhood of education—and sketched these periods as

presented in different times and countries. The lecture showed much research, and will be valuable for reference, since it presents a very full catalogue of pedagogical works, ancient and modern.

Alfred Kirk, of Chicago, presented the "*Moral Uses of the Recitation*," in a well written paper. He took strong ground in favor of positive moral training in the public schools. The foundations of character must there be laid and morals must be the center of every educational scheme. The recitation is the teacher's opportunity to teach the pupil that greatest of all lessons, *how to live.*

S. G. Williams, of Cleveland, read an excellent paper, the last evening, on "*The Use of Text-Books.*" He said that, in the earlier periods of instruction the teacher was much the more prominent figure, and, for a long period in the child's history, perhaps the only text-book that could be used with advantage, was the reading book. The second period is that in which text-books legitimately occupy the largest place. But even here the text books are too often made the alpha and omega of the whole lesson. In the third period pupilage, which properly includes the upper classes of the high school and the first two classes of collegiate instruction, the pupil's use of text books must be considerably modified, and he should now be encouraged and required to test and supplement their contents by means of other information.

The paper elicited a lively discussion, which was participated in by Supt. Calkins, of New York City, Prof. Woodward, of Washington University, Mo., Supt. Harris, and Mr. Merwin, of St. Louis, Commissioner Henkle, of Ohio, Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota, and others. Prof. Woodward urged that lectures and oral instruction could not be relied upon, even in professional schools, and Mr. Harris claimed that the great thing in education is to teach the pupil *how to use text-books.*

The foregoing addresses, papers and discussions constituted the principal exercises of the General Association. To these were added brief addresses on the condition of education in the several States represented, with closing addresses by Rev. John Montieth, State School Superintendent of Missouri, and President Pickard.

ELEMENTARY SECTION.

The first exercise in this section was a brief lecture on the *First Steps in Teaching Reading*, by E. E. White, of Ohio, which was discussed by C. C. Rounds, of Maine, John Hancock, of Cincinnati, N. C. Calkins, of New York City, and others. The discussion was characterized by a remarkable concurrence of views.

This was followed by an address on "*Methods of Teaching Languages*," by D. H. Cruttenden, of New York, which was briefly discussed.

At the next session, Henry C. Harden, of Boston, read a valuable paper on "*Methods of Teaching Drawing*," with black-board illustrations. He stated that all children can learn to draw with no more difference of results than seen in other branches, and that the elements of the art can be successfully taught in primary and grammar schools, without the sacrifice of any presence excellence in other studies. The drawing lessons for primary classes must

of the simplest nature, and the advancement must be by the slowest stages. Forms must be analyzed, and criticism must stimulate observation. Classes of faults must be shown by illustration, and there must be energy in drill and instruction, and definiteness of aim.

A paper on the "*Philosophy of Methods*," by John W. Armstrong, of New York, was read, and a discussion of the two papers occupied the rest of the session.

On Thursday morning, Mrs. Mary Howe Smith, of New York, read a paper on "*Methods of Teaching Geography*," which elicited high commendation. She believed that the two methods of teaching, which may be called the text-book and the non-text-book methods, are "not only the outgrowth of the same principles and inspired by the same motive, but they are capable of being combined into one harmonious whole, and that the highest usefulness of our public schools can be secured only when they shall be thus combined in the practice of instructors generally." The first instruction should be oral and objective. When the pupil has learned to read so readily and intelligently that he can begin the study of the text-book, each book lesson should be preceded by an oral exercise, designed to awaken and direct thought, to enable the pupil to comprehend the lesson, and to interest him in it. By degrees these oral exercises, preceding the study of text, should be discontinued until finally the pupil may be sent unaided to the task of mastering his lesson.

This was followed by a very pointed, suggestive, and interesting discussion of the question, "*What Constitutes a Good Primary Teacher?*" It was opened by W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, and continued by N. A. Calkins, of New York, Miss Delia A. Lathrop, E. E. White, and John Hancock, of Ohio, B. Mallon, of Georgia, J. H. Rolfe, of Illinois, and W. A. Bell, of Indiana.

NORMAL SECTION.

The first exercise was an able paper on "*Model Schools in Connection with Normal Schools*," by Richard Edwards, of Illinois. He held that, as teaching is a practical art, normal training should include a practical apprenticeship, and for this purpose a school of practice is needed. He believed that a model school might be made to furnish (1) models of good teaching and government; (2) apprentice work; and (3) opportunity for experiment—that it may be made both a model school and a school of practice and experiment. He sketched a plan of organizing and conducting such a school.

Miss Anna C. Brackett, Principal of the St. Louis Normal School, read a well-written paper on the same subject. She understood a model school to be one taught by competent teachers, not pupils. It exists for the normal school, and has no separate existence. The paper was, however, chiefly devoted to methods of normal training. She said that it is the province of a normal school to teach the *how* and not the *what*, and that the *why* of the how should be ascertained. The normal school must give general culture, the same as other institutions of higher education, but this is not the leading aim. Discipline and method must be conjoined.

This discussion was continued by Wm. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, who also read a brief paper by J. H. Hoose, of New York, who was absent. Mr. Phelps

favored the separation of experimental, model, and normal schools, basing his argument on his own experience. He was followed by Dr. J. H. Sangster, Superintendent of the Normal School at Toronto, Ontario, who strongly advocated the union of normal schools and schools of practice. In answer to questions, he explained the peculiar features of his school, which he said was full, with two thousand (?) applicants waiting for admission.

At the next session, a very sensible paper, by Supt. J. D. Philbrick, of Boston, on "*The Normal School Problem*," was read by C. C. Rounds, of Maine, Mr. Philbrick being absent. The paper opened with a sketch of the four State Normal Schools of Massachusetts, now supported by an annual appropriation of $50,000. Their success is established, but they need to be supplemented by more elementary normal schools for the preparation of teachers for the ungraded rural schools. Let the term be three months, and let the instruction be efficient. Three months' normal instruction is better than none. Normal training must supply what is lost by the temporary occupation of teachers. The outline of a plan for organizing and conducting such a grade of normal schools was briefly sketched.

The paper was discussed by C. C Rounds, of Maine, Wm. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, J. M. McKenzie, of Nebraska, Geo. B. Beard, of Missouri, J. P. Wickersham, of Pennsylvania, E. E. White, of Ohio, and Richard Edwards, of Illinois. It was agreed that the great need of our school systems is a complete system of normal instruction, adapted to and practically reaching all classes of teachers, and the best plan of organizing such a system was the principal question considered. It was generally conceded that there should be three classes of agencies, viz: (1) one or more State Normal Schools of a high grade; (2) normal schools of a lower and more elementary grade; and (3) the teachers' institute. There was some difference of opinion respecting the second or intermediate class of schools. Several speakers suggested that there might be county normal schools, the system begun in Illinois. One speaker favored normal institutes, with sessions of four to twelve weeks, the same to be held in prescribed districts annually, and at such points as may furnish the best facilities. Such institutes would answer the purpose until there is such a demand for normal institutes as will organize and sustain county normal schools.

On motion of Mr. Phelps, a committee was appointed to make a report, at the next meeting, on a plan of normal schools to meet the wants of the community.

The last session, which was brief, was devoted to a paper by J. W. Armstrong, of New York, on '*Principles and Methods in a Normal Course.*" It was briefly discussed by Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota, M. A. Newell, of Maryland, J. C. Gilchrist, of West Virginia, Miss Brackett, of St. Louis, and Wm. A. Jones, of Indiana.

SUPERINTENDENTS' SECTION.

The principal topic considered in this section was "*Compulsory School Attendance.*" The discussion was opened by John Hancock, of Ohio, who ably presented the right of the State to provide for and demand the education of all its youth. The right of the State transcends the will of the parent. If we are

prepared for a general compulsory law, he believed in first taking the outs, and never yielding the struggle until we have the general system.

Ir. Tooke, of Illinois, believed that a law compelling parents and guardians send their children to school was both right and expedient. The State uld require youth between six and eighteen years of age to attend school east three months in each year. He offered a resolution to this effect.

J. Rickoff, of Ohio, believed that the State must educate the whole people perish, but he was reluctant to resort to a compulsory system. Before pting so extreme a measure, every other practicable means should be usted. The means offered by religious organizations and the platform ld first be used; tracts on the subject should be distributed; all classes of ated and professional men should be appealed to.

r. Foster, of Missouri, admitted the right of the State to compel school dance, but doubted the expediency of the measure. He offered a substi- for Mr. Tooke's resolution.

m. F. Phelps, of Minnesota, asserted that universal education is a necessity, no nation has as yet succeeded in educating all its people, except by com- ng school attendance. He believed that the measure was both right and dient. It was the doctrine of common sense. How much longer shall we riment and wait? Statistics show that illiteracy is on the increase, in the of the most earnest efforts. Compulsion must be made a part of our ational policy, but it will be but a temporary expedient. When once the e people are educated, no compulsory law will be needed.

ate Supt. Montieth, of Missouri, believed that all sides of this question ld be considered. It may be legally right, and yet there may be concom- s which make it unwise. He thought centralization and compulsion were parable.

. White, of Ohio, said there are two questions to be dispassionately consid- before we resort to the compulsory system, viz: 1. To what extent has oluntary system failed, and wherein has it failed? 2. Will a compulsory m be a success, both where the voluntary system has failed, and where s succeeded? Statistics furnish no certain answer to the first question. kind of statistics used to show that the American voluntary system has l, also prove that the compulsory system of Prussia has failed. The differ- between the enrollment and the enumeration proves nothing respecting umber of children growing up unschooled. The voluntary system has ailed? The statistics show that as high a per cent. of the population ded school last year in Ohio as in Prussia. Education is as universal in nd without the compulsory system, as in Bavaria with it. The school dance is as great in those cantons of Switzerland that have no compulsory as it is in those cantons which have. He did not believe that a compul- system would be a success in this country. Where it was most needed, would be no public sentiment to enforce it. He was in favor of supple- ing the voluntary system, but not of abandoning it.

e resolutions were referred to a committee consisting of Messrs. White, s, and Hancock, who, at the next session, reported the following resolu- which were unanimously adopted:

Resolved, **That universal education is a public necessity, and that the State has the full right to provide for and secure it.**

Resolved, **That to secure universal education in this country, our present system of voluntary school attendance should be supplemented by truant laws, reformatory schools, and such other compulsory measures as may be necessary to reach that class of youth now growing up in ignorance.**

Supt. W. R. Creery, of Baltimore, read a paper on a "*Uniform Basis of School Statistics*"; but we have seen no report of the paper or of its discussion, and hence are unable to give an abstract.

DEPARTMENT OF HIGHER EDUCATION.

The exercises were opened by a paper on "*Classical Study and the Means of Securing It in the West*", by H. K Edson, of Iowa. He asserted that, after a thorough examination of the merits of classical studies for years, through the press and in all classes of society, the verdict rendered is substantially in their favor. No other means of discipline so effective and thorough, have yet been discovered. The question to be considered is, What means shall we use to secure more attention to them, and bring about their general introduction? Dividing educational institutions into three classes, primary, secondary, and higher, we find in the West a deficiency of institutions of the second class. The States make ample provision for the first class and, in exceptional cases, for the third class. The lack of good preparatory schools is a serious hindrance to the prosperity of our colleges. The immediate and pressing want of the time is the establishment of schools that shall initiate the youth in the rural districts in a course of classical study. Mr. Edson also urged the establishment of independent training schools to prepare classical teachers, thus implying that the colleges fail to meet this demand. He opposed the support of higher institutions by public taxation.

The subject was discussed by Dr. Daniel Read, of Missouri, S G. Williams, of Ohio, Dr. Gulliver, of Illinois, and others. It was urged that the colleges can not depend upon the public high schools to prepare students. The want must be met by thorough private classical schools. A resolution, offered by Dr. Gulliver, approving of "the effort now in progress to unite more perfectly the courses of study in public high schools and colleges, by introducing special classical courses on the part of the schools, and by modifying, without lowering, the requirements of admission on the part of the colleges", was laid over until the next meeting.

Hon. John Eaton, National Commissioner of Education, read an able and exhaustive paper on "*Superior Instruction in Its Relation to Universal Education.*" The paper pointed out several defects in the higher institutions of learning in their relation to their students, and then presented the duties of these institutions and all liberally educated men to the universal education of the people. The conclusion was thus stated: "If any section or class is neglected, excluded from letters, or shut up in ignorance, may we not justly hold superior instruction accountable? Either it has not done its work, or has done it badly."

At the second session, Prof. T. H. Safford, of the Chicago University, read a scholarly paper on "*Modern Mathematics in the College Course.*" The following are his main positions: 1. Our college course of mathematics must

ain in future more synthetic geometry and less algebra and higher analy
more practical and less abstract matter. 2. Time must be gained by be-
ing geometry in an elementary way before the preparatory college course.
eometry and arithmetic—both subjects taken in their broadest sense—
go hand in hand throughout the course; must continually support each
, each retaining its individuality. What we now call analytical geometry
be introduced in various stages with geometry proper. 4. The text-books
diminish in size, and be largely supplemented by oral teaching. Both
er and pupil must learn better how to work at the subjects, not at the
merely. 5. The interests of educational science, of mathematical
e, of physical science, and of practical utility, alike demand these
es. The paper engaged the closest attention, and was warmly applauded
close.

subject was discussed by President Tappan, of Ohio, Professor Wood
of Missouri, Dr. Gulliver, of Illinois, and others. President Tappan
hat he was greatly pleased with the paper. He was satisfied that the
nt of mathematics now included in the college course was too great, and
ibted whether the the mathematical studies of the sophomore year should
made elective.

f. Henry M. Tyler, of Knox College, Ill., read an elaborate paper on the
nunciation of the Latin and Greek Languages", in which he urged
option of the ancient pronunciation. This has been recommended by
ilological Association of this country, and it would bring us very nearly
greement with the usage of the gymnasia and universities of Germany.
ought that the difficulties in the way of reproducing the pronunciation of
cients could be easily overcome.

t. Harris dissented from the views of the paper, while he admired its
Are we to pronounce Cicero as we do Quintilian? The pronunciation
guages changes. Wo do not pronounce the verses of Shakespeare as
nounced them. He thought it would take two thousand years to go
to the pronunciation of Cicero. The subject was further discussed by
Kistler, Allen, and Westcott, of Illinois, Prof. Berg, of St. Louis, Prof.
le, Miss M. F. Buchanan, of Chicago, and others. Most of the speakers
ly favored what is known as the continental pronunciation. On motion
Henkle, of Ohio, a committee, consisting of Professors Tyler, Boise,
istler, was appointed to prepare rules for the pronunciation of Greek and
and report at the next meeting.

iscussion on "*College Degrees*" concluded the exercises in this Section.
opened by W. W. Folwell, of Minnesota, and continued by President
n and others. A committee was appointed to collect facts as to the his-
f degrees in our colleges and the usages of various institutions in be-
g them, and to report, with recommendatins if deemed best, at the next
n. The committee consists of President Allyn, of McKendre College,
ent White, of Cornell University, and Prof. McGuffey, of the Michigan
rsity.

the preparation of the foregoing report, we have freely consulted the
ull report published by the *Missouri Democrat.*

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of *the* Teacher due him, we always remail it.

—— The first volume of The National Teacher, which ends with the December number, will contain about *six hundred and fifty pages!* The second volume will begin in January, 1872, but we can still supply back numbers from July, and we advise that all subscriptions sent before Nov. 15th, begin with that number, and thus close with the current school year. This will also secure the August and September numbers which together contain 126 pages, and are of special value. Many subscribers regard these two numbers worth the price of the volume. If the Teacher is half worthy of what eminent teachers in all sections of the country are pleased to say of it, its subscription list should be doubled the present month.

Personal.—Zalmon Richards, late Superintendent of the public schools of Washington City, has been appointed auditor of the District of Columbia. He intends to continue his active connection with the profession by giving courses of lectures to a normal class.

Prof. J. C. Gilchrist, late principal of the West Virginia State Normal School at Fairmont, would like a situation in the West. All reports agree that he did an excellent work at Fairmont, and we much regret that the normal cause in West Virginia is to lose his efficient services.

D. P. Pratt, of Portsmouth, O., last year connected with the Columbus High School, has accepted a position as teacher in the State Institution for the Blind, Batavia, N. Y. The institution is in charge of Dr. A. D. Lord, for many years one of the leading educators of Ohio.

O. H. Fethers, of St. Louis, one of the editors of the *Western Educational Review*, has given instruction in elocution in several of the teachers' institutes of Ohio, with good satisfaction.

Professor Gilman, of Yale College, has been requested by the Department of the Interior to make an inspection of the agricultural colleges of the country.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE SOUTHERN STATES.

Georgia.—Having seen seen several letters written by newspaper correspondents, which represent the prospects of the new school systems of the South to be very gloomy, we addressed a letter to Gen. Lewis, State School Commissioner of Georgia, asking him if he thought that our June editorial was too hopeful. Here is his reply:

Atlanta, Ga., Sept. 21st, 1871.

Hon. E. E. White—*Dear Sir:* Yours of 15th inst. is received. I do not think your editorial on "Public Education in the South" too hopeful. The events and experience of the last three months have encouraged me very much. We have been making tremendous progress both in sentiment and actual work. I have not the slightest fear now that our free-school law will be abolished by the next Legislature on the contrary, I believe it will be amended and made stronger, and that the system will be given a trial. Quite a large number of the members of the next Legislature will be enthusiastic for public schools—some of them the strongest men in the

ody. The defects in our law have crippled us badly, but still we have accomplished mething. More than half the counties in the State have schools in operation; me 30 or more having from 25 to 35 schools in each. I think there are now from 200 to 1,500 schools in operation in the State, and that before the 1st of January xt we shall have as many as 2,000 schools. The school fund being so small, and e school officers generally refusing to levy taxes to pay teachers (on account of de- tive law), they are pursuing the plan indicated in my circular letter (copy en- sed). I think our prospect brightens, and that persistent labor will certainly ablish a good common-school system in Georgia.

I am, truly yours, J. R. LEWIS.

ENNESSEE.—The great want of this State is an efficient system of public schools, there is little prospect that it will soon be met. The State is oppressed with a ry public debt and railroad liabilities, and few of her public men are wise enough e that good schools for all the people would bring increased prosperity, and thus eality lighten their financial burden. The indisposition to undertake the work ublic education is doubtless increased by the past bad management of the school ls of the State. Even the small fund raised by the law of 1835 for the endow- t of county academies, was squandered in 1837 by the State Superintendent, the amounting to $150,000. During and just after the war, the entire school fund he State was sunk, the loss by a Memphis bank amounting to about $800,000. se misfortunes are easily made an excuse for delay and non-action. The aboli- of the State system in 1867 and the restoration of the old county system left : of the State sadly destitute of schools. Only a few of the wealthier and more rprising counties have as yet organized under the law and levied a school tax. only remedy is the reorganization of the State system, and the present progress ublic sentiment is indicative that sooner or later this will be done. The good : will, however, require time.——The Loudon High School, opened in Sept. has entered upon its second year with good prospects. It occupies a new and nodious building, and has a good corps of teachers. It is in charge of Mr. D. odenhamer.

RKANSAS.—The General Assembly, at its last session, greatly crippled the free- ol system, which had made so fine a beginning, by the passage of a law provid- for the issuing of interest-bearing certificates, and making them receivable for ol taxes. A recent financial statement of the State Treasurer shows that a large ortion of the school tax, collected under the law, has been paid in this "State ", which is worth about fifty cents on the dollar, and this depreciated paper been apportioned to the school districts for the payment of teachers. In those ties in which the tax was paid in United States money, the collectors have con- d it into "State scrip", and pocketed some forty per cent. of the proceeds! has resulted in a great wrong to the teachers of the State, who are now receiv- nly about one-half of their wages. Notwithstanding this great discouragement, tate School Department and the friends of the school system generally are vig- ly pushing forward the work.——The *Arkansas Journal of Education*, which was ged to a magazine in January last, is a zealous advocate of the good cause. rish it increasing success.

SSISSIPPI.—The present school system of this State was organized last year, and g the first six months of its administration there were organized about 3,000 c schools, which enrolled upwards of 86,000 pupils. The number of teachers oyed was nearly 4,000. This is certainly a good beginning.

CENTRAL AND WESTERN STATES.

KENTUCKY.—Our State deserves some notice in your journal for her progress i in institute work. Previous to this year institutes were almost unknown, but thi is year district or county institutes, continuing a full week, have been held at th following places: Carlisle, Lexington, Frankfort, Hartford, Lagrange, Bowling Green, Lebanon, Falmouth, Hawesville, Paducah, London, Monticello, Scottsville Litchfield, and Catlettsburg,—in addition to the State Teachers' Association a Paris. It was my pleasure to be present at six or seven of these institutes, and was greatly cheered by meeting there some of our Ohio and Indiana friends, ready and willing to assist in all good words and work. The beneficial effect of these in stitutes is also very largely owing to the generous hospitality, the "Old Kentucky kind", of the citizens of the places where the teachers met. There seemed to be a recognition of the fact, that when teachers come together for mutual self-improve ment, results must follow which will benefit the whole community. It is greatly to be hoped that each county in the State will next year be able to hold an institute equal in size and importance to the district institute of this year.

Louisville, Ky., Sept. 26, 1871. J. B. REYNOLDS.

WISCONSIN.—The State Teachers' Association held its annual meeting at Madison July 11–13. A large part of the time was devoted to addresses and papers, which the *Journal of Education* pronounces "of an unusually high order." Special men- tion is made of the lectures of Dr. Carpenter on Reading; of Prof. Peabody, of Chicago, on the "Sun"; of Prof. Peabody, of Harvard, on "Words"; of Supt Pickard, of Chicago; of Prof. Phelps, of Minnesota; and of the poem by Mrs. H. E. G. Arey, entitled "Cui Bono." The editor thinks the Association had too much of a good thing, and a radical innovation in the next programme is urged. Among the practical topics considered was a "Course of Study for Graded Schools" "County Supervision", and "Normal Schools." A resolution declaring that "no law of compulsory attendance should be enacted", was referred back to the com- mittee to report at the next meeting.

OHIO.—The public school building of Cambridge was destroyed by fire on the 27th of September. The schools were in session when the fire was discovered, but the eight hundred pupils were properly dismissed and all escaped without injury.

THE NORMAL SCHOOLS.—The Ohio Central Normal School, located at Worthing- ton, has made a promising beginning with about 40 students. Capt. Mitchell has been appointed superintendent of the public schools of the village, which have been attached to the institution as a Model Department, and organized on the most ap- proved plan. A department for teaching the Kindergarten art is to be organized.— We hear nothing from the McNeely Normal School, but run no risk in saying that it is doing its usually excellent, though quiet, work.——Mr. Holbrook reports that the National Normal School has opened finely, with an increase of about thirty per cent. on last year's opening attendance. The Summer Normal Institute was at- tended by 450 persons.——The North Western Normal School, at Republic, reports an opening attendance of 185 students, and a Juvenile Department is to be organ- ized for the small children in attendance. This school opened last year.——The Northwestern Ohio Normal School, located at Ada, H. S. Lehr, principal, has opened with 150 students. The new building is not yet completed, which has somewhat lessened the attendance. These are all private institutions.

SPRINGFIELD.—In 1860 the superintendency and high school were both abolished by a popular vote—an action which has ever since worked serious injury to the schools. In 1867 both the superintendency and the high school were restored

Rev. J. F. Reinmund being elected superintendent, and C. H. Evans principal of the high school. At the close of the school year of 1869–70, the superintendent resigned, and Mr. Evans was made both superintendent of the schools and principal of the high school—a backward movement, as the duties of each office are sufficient for one man to discharge. We are informed, however, that the results of the first year were very satisfactory. By the aid of a printed course of study, clearly defining the work in each grade, and by the cheerful and zealous co-operation of the entire corps of teachers, the superintendent was able to secure decided progress. The enrollment for the year was 1,825, the highest ever attained; the per cent. of attendance on weekly enrollment was 96; tardiness was decreased fifty per cent.; and the examinations were modeled after those in our best schools with good results. A class of eight, the first since 1859, graduated from the high school at the close of the year, with the hearty approbation of an audience of 1,600 persons. The young ladies of the class were dressed in ten-cent calico. The high school, abolished in 1860, has not only been restored, but has taken possession of the fine property of the Springfield Female Seminary, including the building and three acres of the grounds, purchased at a cost of $27,000. Thus the public school system, though opposed, marches on to assured victories.

Hamilton County.—The fourth annual institute was held in the elegant and commodious building of the Ohio Female College, College Hill, commencing August 7 and continuing two weeks. The instructors and lecturers were Thos. W. Harvey, Hon. W. D. Henkle (1st week), John Hancock, A. B. Johnson (penmanship), G. A. Carnahan (vocal music), Miss Anna Oliver (drawing), and E. E. White (2d week). President Turrill made a very sensible opening address, and he and several other teachers of the county gave one or more brief lessons. The institute was visited by a considerable number of superintendents and teachers from other counties, several of whom, including Messrs. Ormsby and Watkins, gave each a lecture. The forenoon of each day was devoted to methods of teaching the several branches, and for this purpose the institute was divided into two sections and the lessons repeated. The afternoon was devoted to normal lectures and lessons in penmanship and drawing. There were three evening lectures each week, one lyceum exercise, and one social, the lyceum being conducted by Mr. Carnahan. The attendance was not as large as was anticipated, but the institute was otherwise a decided success.

BOOK NOTICES.

A School History of the United States, from the Discovery of America to the Year 1870. By David B. Scott. Illustrated with Maps and Engravings. New York: Harper & Brothers.

A Common-School History of the United States; from the Earliest Period to the Present Time. By Benson J. Lossing. Illustrated by Maps and over 200 Other Engravings. New York: Sheldon & Company.

A Brief History of the United States. For Schools. New York and Chicago: A. S. Barnes & Co.

A Condensed School History of the United States, constructed for Definite Results in Recitation, and containing a New Method of Topical Reviews. By Wm. Swinton, A.M. With Maps and Other Illustrations. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor and Co.

The increasing introduction of the study of United States History into the public schools of the country has already resulted in the publication of a large number of school histories, and the preparation of others is announced. This is likely to continue until each of the leading publishing houses has added a school history of the

United States to its list of common school text-books. Unless the study of history becomes nearly as general as the study of English grammar (it is now about *one-tenth*), most of these numerous series of school histories are not likely to prove very profitable investments. However, the better the adaptation of the histories published to common-school use, the more rapid will be the introduction of the study of history. But our present purpose is to notice briefly the four school histories whose titles are given above, and in the order in which they came to our table.

Scott's School History (426 pp. 12mo.) is profusely illustrated with engravings and maps, executed in a superior manner. The text is written in a simple and lucid style, and the events and facts are so grouped and arranged as to make a somewhat continuous narrative. So far as we have examined the work, we have found it commendably accurate. Perhaps we should except the rehearsal of the old but questionable story of Pocahontas. A characteristic feature is the introduction of "General Reflections" at the close of important periods in the narrative. We have read several of these, and find that they they supply, what is wanting in most school histories, a brief account of the habits, pursuits, and character of the people, their progress, etc. Another feature is the introduction of "Review Questions" at frequent intervals.

Lossing's Common-School History (388 pp. 12mo.) seems to be as profusely illustrated as Scott's, and the maps are, we think, superior, being similar to those in Anderson's excellent histories. The author's style is somewhat graphic, but is concise and clear—a very desirable combination of qualities. We like the general arrangement of the matter, and we are specially pleased with the numerous foot-notes,—a characteristic feature of Lossing's histories. These notes are rich in illustrative and important information, helpful to both teacher and pupil. Another valuable feature is the presentation of the Constitution of the United States in a convenient form for study—with a topical analysis in bold-face type, and very full explanatory notes.

The "Brief History" (336pp.) published by A. S. Barnes & Co., called "Barnes's One-Term History," is an attempt to present the leading facts of American History in an attractive and readable shape—to make a brief history which shall contain more than "the dry bones of fact, uninviting and unreal." To this end, the author, who is not named in the title, has adopted a graphic and somewhat rhetorical style, very similar to that which characterizes Steele's "Fourteen Weeks" series. This attractiveness of style is sometimes secured at the expense of conciseness and clearness, of which the first two paragraphs (p. 9) are illustrations. But these defects of style and statement will doubtless be corrected by an early and careful revision. Among the excellent features of the book, we notice its large, clear type; its good maps; its lessons in local geography preceding each epoch in history; the including of only important events and dates in the body of the text; the numerous foot-notes; and its convenient topical arrangement.

Swinton's Condensed School History (326 pp. 12mo.) discards the graphic narrative style, and states historical facts in the most direct and concise manner. The text is broken into short paragraphs, and the construction is otherwise similar to that adopted by the authors of school geographies. This makes the book remarkably clear and compact—a book to be recited rather than an attractive reading book. The most noticeable feature of its plan is the method of "Topical Reviews." These reviews, which close each important period, present a topical analysis of the preceding pages, and are much superior to review questions. We dislike to criticise so excellent a work, but we must bear witness against the amount of black letter, which disfigures its pages. We can not look upon some of the pages without positive annoyance.

ESSONS IN PHYSICS. By C. L. HOTZE, Central High School, Cleveland, O. nis: Hendricks & Chittenden.

S OF NATURAL PHILOSOPHY. By LEROY C. COOLEY. New York: Charles er & Co.

PERIMENTS IN NATURAL SCIENCE. By LEROY C. COOLEY. New York: Chas. er & Co,

books are so nearly alike in design and execution as to be properly noticed e heading. They are 12mo. books, the first of about 170 pages, and the id third respectively 175 pages and 85 pages. Their almost simultaneous ce is indicative of the movement, which is becoming somewhat widely n favor of the introduction of the study of the elements of natural philos- our common schools of a lower grade than the high school. In all of them ipt is made to present an easy discussion of some important instruments, , and physical phenomena, by the aid of inexpensive apparatus and a little al skill, in such a manner as to lead the pupil into habits of critical obser- id careful thought.

" First Lessons in Physics" is a book of beautiful mechanical execution lent scientfiic arrangement. It is divided into thirty-nine lessons, in order ay be completed in one school year, should it be impossible to give it more than one lesson per week. A lesson consists generally of one or more nts of so simple a nature as to be in most cases readily prepared and per- y both teacher and pupil. From the experiment is drawn the principle ch it depends, which, after being illustrated by "familiar facts," receives ation in the solution of physical problems of an elementary nature. This ell carried out throughout the book, and at its close is a list of nearly seven questions of greater or less difficulty, by means of which frequent tests in ess of the study can be made. Frequent references will be found through- olume to other works, in which a more extensive treatment of the various nay be found. The book in its present condition (first edition) is greatly y frequent and, in many cases, gross errors in the use of language, most of st be typographical. The writer has just been informed by the author that id third editions are in progress, in which it is expected an improvement spect will appear.

s "Elements of Natural Philosophy" and "Easy Experiments" may be arately, yet each would be more effective if the other were present. The s been quite fertile in his contrivance of ample experiments, and extremely most cases, in his directions for their performance. The most inexperienced an take these "Easy Experiments," and, with patience, succeed with nine- them. The text of the "Elements" is somewhat peculiar. Each paragraph th a question, the answer to which is the subject of the paragraph. These are printed in bold type, and the author recommends them as being par- convenient for the teacher. In conducting an exercise of this kind, the ho relies upon his book for either questions or answers, will most certainly ilure. Some of the illustrations in this book are very excellent, and some the reverse. Without a perusal of the text, one does not at once recognize y dew-drop resting on the bosom of a leaf, and the illustration (Fig. 50) ing the young man gazing upon the bottom of the lake, although artisti- l done, is positively bad, because it teaches that a ray of light is refracted passes from one medium to another in a line perpendicular to the place of n; and, indeed, the author has committed the singular error of affirming bending of the ray *always takes place* when it passes from one medium to of different density. Writers of text-books for young pupils should jeal-

ously guard them against the admission of any looseness or inaccuracy. It is quite possible to be both elementary and exact.

These three books will supply a demand which is even now considerable, and, without doubt, be the means of creating a desire for the study of the simpler truths of nature in our common schools. T. C. M.

THE HISTORICAL READER, embracing Selections from Standard Writers of Ancient and Modern History, interspersed with Illustrative Passages from British and American Poets: with Explanatory Observations, Notes, etc. To which are added a Vocablary of Difficult Words and Biographical and Geographical Indexes. By JOHN J. ANDERSON, A.M., Author of a Series of School Histories. 544 pp. 12mo. New York: Clark & Maynard.

The above title gives but a poor idea of this unique work, which is designed to fill the two-fold office of a companion-history and an instructive reading-book. It may be read in connection with the study of the ordinary school-manuals of history, or it may be used independently for the purpose of teaching reading. In either case it can not fail to impress the great events of history and also to cultivate a taste for historical reading by giving the pupil a taste of the best historical writings. The selections are admirably adapted to the purposes in view. They are sufficiently imaginative to attract and interest the young, and, at the same time, they present a great variety of style, in both prose and poetry, for practice in reading and elocution. The work is divided into three parts—the first being devoted to American history; the second to English, Scottish, and French history; and the third being miscellaneous. Among the valuable features of the work are the historical and explanatory notes, accompanying the selections; the vocabulary of difficult and unusual words, with their correct pronunciation indicated; the geographical index; and brief biographical sketches of the authors from whose writings the selections have been made—a most valuable feature. This book is worthy of the historical series to which it belongs—which is enough commendation.

ADDRESSES AND PROCEEDINGS OF THE NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.—This neat volume of 260 large octavo pages contains the proceedings of the National Teachers' Association, the American Normal Association, and the Central College Association, at the meetings held in Cleveland and Oberlin, Ohio, in 1870, with phonographic reports of the discussions in the National bodies. It has been published with a view of advancing the cause of education, and it is hoped that at least the cost may be realized. The volume is worthy a place in every professional teacher's library. Price, bound in cloth, $1.25. Address the publisher, James H. Holmes, Washington, D. C.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

MUNSELL'S PSYCHOLOGY; or, The Science of Mind. 320 pp. 12mo. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

MONROE'S FIFTH READER. 312 pp. 12mo. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.

OLNEY'S ELEMENTS OF TRIGONOMETRY, Plain and Spherical. 202 pp. 8vo. New York: Sheldon & Co.

LOOMIS'S ELEMENTS OF THE ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND HYGIENE OF THE HUMAN SYSTEM. Revised Edition. 254 pp. 12mo. New York: Sheldon & Co.

WILSON'S ELEMENTARY ALGEBRA. For Schools and Academies. 240 pp. 12mo. Philadelphia: Eldredge & Brother.

NEW CENSUS AND PATENT LAWS. 120 pp. 16mo. New York: Munn & Co.

HYMNS OF PRAYER AND PRAISE. For Use in Individual, Family, and Social Worship. Price 75 cts. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

THE

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E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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THE SCHOOLS OF SWITZERLAND.

BY B. G. NORTHROP, CONNECTICUT.

A visit to over a hundred schools in the different cantons, has greatly enhanced my appreciation of the Swiss System of Public Instruction. The Swiss are a progressive people, and their excellent educational system is both the evidence and cause of their general advancement. It contains some features worthy of imitation. The schools are supported by the State, are free to all are well attended, and highly prized by the people.

In the studies of geography and arithmetic, their methods are inferior to those adopted in America, but in language-exercises, history, and drawing, they greatly excel. The mastery of the mother tongue is the first aim, while the culture of the expressive faculties is made very prominent. They justly regard language as not only the medium of thought, but the chief agent in cultivating the memory and taste. The disciplinary influence of the study of language is kept in view, and to talk well is held to be a noble art. The daily school drills aim at this grand attainment. Choice selections of poetry and prose are committed to memory, and recited almost daily. Starting early, the memory is trained with surprising facility. I have been greatly pleased with the recitations of poetry by young pupils,—long passages being given without hesitation or mistake.

The fact that there are three races in Switzerland,—German, French, and Italian,—and that these three languages are spoken

in the Federal Assembly, as well as in commercial intercourse gives a practical interest to the study of the modern languages. Besides "the vernacular," the study of French or German *is required* in the schools, and is begun at a tender age. The faculty of language is, therefore, early developed. Under ten or twelve years is the memorial age for words and their forms. Beginning at the right age, the Swiss youth make most rapid and thorough progress in modern languages. The Classics are also commenced early, and great proficiency is the result. In the study of any new language, the pen is ever in hand, and there is constant practice in expressing ideas in that language. The proficiency of each pupil is measured by his ability to convey his thoughts in the new tongue. I commend this practice to our American teachers.

History, too much neglected in America, is here made a most attractive and prominent study. This land is classic, vestiges of Roman rule and works abound, and memorials of battles and sieges, in later times, stimulate inquiry. The school-building itself has often a history of its own. I have inspected the college and academy, founded by Calvin more than three hundred years ago, sat in the pulpit chair occupied by him, heard recitations and lectures in the very rooms where he taught, and with which are associated the names of John Knox, Neckar, Sismondi, Albert Gallatin, and a host of eminent men of Europe; for Geneva was the educational centre, where Protestant young men from England, France, and Germany were educated for nearly two centuries after the Reformation. Though, with one exception, the smallest canton in Switzerland, no place of its size, in modern times, has exercised so wide spread and happy an influence, both intellectual and religious. Among the ruling minds of the present day, Prince Bismark is named as one who was educated in part here. Such memories awaken an historic spirit in the schools. Still more their monuments, walls, towers, ruins and relics, their fountains adorned with quaint emblems, their heroes and benefactors enshrined in storied marble, their hard-won victories recorded in bronze, their archeological Museum and Library, with the manuscripts of Luther, Calvin, Beza, Melancthon, and others, foster an interest in the past.

The Swiss Schools also excel in drawing. They understand both its practical bearing, and its relation to general culture. Their skilled mechanics apply the art in drafting plans, forming decorative designs, and executing all nice work. They say that

not the architect, builder, machinist, and inventor only must "draw", but that any craftsman, skilled in design, makes a better workman, whatever may be his trade. The world now pays substantial tribute to Switzerland for the exquisite taste displayed in the decorative arts, in their unequaled wood carvings, their beautiful designs and chasings in gold and silver, their watches and their music-boxes, their silks and ribbons and their patterns for embroidery, and for their extensive printing and dyeing manufactures. In the industrial schools, special instruction is given in ornamental drawing, moulding, and designing. In the girls' schools, needle work is taught to all. The Swiss believe in the dignity of labor, in the system of apprenticeship, and the thorough mastery of some trade. The theory that labor is menial, and that the tools of a trade are badges of servility, is foreign to them. They are ingenious and industrious. They have learned that ignorance means waste and weakness, that education is economy, that brains help the hands in all work, multiplying both the value and productive power of mere muscles.

In this direction, the Polytechnic Institute at Zurich is doing a noble work. It is already deservedly the pride of the nation, is liberally supported by the Government, and has a very large and able corps of professors, with 600 students. Its celebrity has attracted many students from other lands. England has nothing equal to it. Indignant that his own country should so neglect both popular and technical education, J. Scott Russell says:

"The contrast between England and Switzerland is, that England spends more than five times as much on pauperism and crime as she does on education, and Switzerland spends seven times as much on education as she does on pauperism and crime."

The recent progress of Switzerland in internal improvements, manufactures, and wealth, is great. While other causes have helped, the most efficient agency is the marked improvement in popular and technical education. Railways thread her valleys and climb hills and even mountains, where the construction is costly and difficult. The telegraphic lines are relatively more numerous than in America, and, being a part of the postal system, the rates are low and uniform.

The roads are the best in Europe, and yet without tolls. Even the most costly suspension bridges are free. The Swiss government is the most liberal one in Europe. It is of the people and for the people. It happily illustrates the national motto, "*Un*

pour tous, tous pour un"—"one for all and all for one." Such a Government can afford to trust the people. Hence there is a free press, free speech, free schools, freedom in religion, and freedom in traveling,—no passports being required and no examination of luggage; no standing army, and no gendarmes ever brandishing the threatening hand of power, as elsewhere in Europe. There is, relatively, far less criminality here than in England. The fact just stated in the *Swiss Times*, that in the village of Illgow, containing 1230 inhabitants, not one individual during the last twenty-three years has been brought into a court as prisoner, or sued for debt, can be said of few places of equal population in the world.

The schools and the press have lately fraternized the whole nation. The several cantons were formerly isolated both in fact and feeling, with little intercommunication, and less sympathy with distinct local customs and laws. Some still strongly cherish their hereditary usages. A few are proud of their Roman origin, and keep up their *lictors* with "patrician" and "plebeian" ideas. Berne (Bear) still retains Bruin as its heraldic emblem, and has this figure on its coat of arms and its fountains; it guards many ancient dwellings, and sometimes stands forth, equipped with full panoply of shield, banner, and sword. Gigantic bears in granite guard the city gates, and, in the wonderful clock, a whole troop of bears perform at the striking of the hour, and the city maintains a menagerie of bears at the public expense. Geneva, in like manner, honors its emblem, the eagle, by keeping a flock of eagles in a series of huge cages. Berne, while abounding in most beautiful modern edifices, still maintains its unique and historic character more than any other Swiss city. But education, the press, railroads, telegraphs, and a wise central government have conciliated the people of these twenty-two cantons. Though separate in race, religion, and language, they are one in national sympathy and interest, proud of their history, and prouder still of their recent progress and present prosperity. While beggars are found everywhere in Europe, there is less pauperism in Switzerland than in any other nation on the continent. With no communism, there is still a general diffusion of property, and almost every one is a land-owner. Of the 485,000 householders, only 20,000 possess no land. The ownership of land is an element of dignity, and conscious elevation to the individual, and, thus, of strength to the nation.

Munich, Sept. 23, 1871.

RIGHTS OF PUPILS.

BY J. L. PICKARD, CHICAGO.

It is assumed at the outset that schools are organized in the interest of the pupil, and not for the illustration of any pet theory nor for the aggrandizement of the teacher. Such an assumption may seem to a close observer *unwarranted*, but it is not *unwarrantable*. It is certainly high time that the truth be universally recognized that it may be firmly established. In the administration of schools, the rights of pupils should be scrupulously guarded.

It is not my purpose to write of the more obvious rights of the pupil, such as the right to pleasantly located, conveniently arranged, suitably warmed and ventilated houses; kind treatment; careful instruction; early and continued privileges; proper home preparation in matters of clothing, books, and encouragement; a proper share of the teacher's time.

Leaving these, the first right presenting itself to my mind is, *the right to be controlled.* Obedience is generally urged as a duty. I prefer to call it a right, and to defend it as such. Whatever a child needs (not what he wishes), he has a right to claim. His first great need is that of judicious control. The experience of the child's elders can be made available to the child only through a course of discipline reaching every department of his being. His little will may be strong and directly averse to his highest good. In the pursuit of his own course, he may be wayward and stubborn. He is ignorant of any better way than the one he has chosen for himself, and hence he is willful in traversing it. The right to be controlled by superior wisdom is inalienably his, though he may be too blind to see it. Blessed will be the teacher or the parent, who constantly keeps before the mind of the child his right to control until the child shall come into the full consciousness that what he had ignorantly abhorred as a teacher's right, is after all one of his own most precious rights—the right to be controlled. The very fact that the pupil does not recognize this right, makes it the more important that he be constrained to claim it. Curiosity, itself a powerful leader, needs to be led. It is a strong incentive to effort, and, properly controlled, it may prove a great blessing to the child. Unguided, it may lead to utter ruin. Love of applause, is a blessing or a curse. That wisdom, which is the fruit

of experience, may point out the sure way to make it the one or the other. The highest type of liberty is found in obedience to wholesome law. Independence of thought and action is a snare to many a pupil, because he does not know how to make it serviceable. In all these points which are so essential to his development, the child can not be a law unto himself. He needs to be controlled, and because he needs it, he can claim it as his right.

2. *The right to be trusted.* This right must necessarily be limited by the preceding. It is universal, except so far as well ascertained facts render trust impossible. The right should never be denied upon mere suspicion or hastily formed opinions. There are untruthful men, whose unworthiness of trust may be traced back to some ill-founded accusations. Nothing is more delicate than a child's sense of right; and when wrong is unjustly imputed to him, he is first shocked and then too often hardened. Many a child, from whom frank confession of wrong might have been drawn by a kind and sympathetic appeal, is driven into falsehood by sharp reproof. A bad motive should never be imputed, if it is possible to discover a good one. In children we must expect errors in judgment, and we must not lay upon their conduct the line and the square suited to test the practices of full-grown men. Thoughtlessness is not always a crime. A spy must impart to his victim some of the trickery which his own occupation encourages. A whole-souled confidence in his pupils begets in them love for their teacher. Their trust is so implicit that their right to be trusted should be sedulously observed. A successful teacher once remarked to me, "There are teachers to whom pupils would never think of lying, but they are not those whose main business is to watch their pupils." Generous confidence is seldom met by equivocation or by falsehood. The teacher who is always hunting for hooks upon which to hang his suspicions, will soon be surrounded by a crowd of false pupils, whose main study will be to furnish the hooks he seeks. It is painfully true that limits must be set to this right to be trusted, but let them be placed as far as the broadest charity will dictate. If a doubt prevail, let the pupil have the benefit of that doubt. The teacher by the very position he occupies, is beyond the need of such benefit. He can afford to give it; the pupil can not afford to lose it.

3. *The right to be led.* He must be led by example, by the silent influence of a true life. Self-control; obedience to the

same laws to which his pupils are expected to submit; entire truthfulness and consequent worthiness of trust—these are the main constituents of a worthy example—these the child has a right to expect in his teacher. It is not sufficient that the way be pointed out by one who stands still himself. The pupil must see his teacher before him, that he may walk by sight and not entirely by faith.

4. *The right to be fed.* He who is competent to teach little children, is certainly fitted to feed more mature minds; but he who is competent to teach young men and women, may be or he may not be fitted to feed little ones. I see not how any person with a conscience can claim that he knows enough to teach little children, while admitting his inability to instruct the more advanced. No right of the child is more frequently ignored in the selection of teachers than this right to be fed. The feeding of a pupil involves knowledge of his mental and moral constitution, and of the fitness of various articles of food to the varied and varying circumstances of each individual pupil. Every child has a right to proper food and to proper feeding. With all fields into which a child's curiosity may lead him, the teacher must be perfectly familiar. The trusting child takes whatever comes within his reach, be it healthful or be it poisonous. Mere distention is not strengthening. Feeding implies proper times and proper methods of administering proper food in right quantities. All cramming is at war with right feeding.

With the rights named, all others are more or less intimately related. The skeleton given above may be filled out to each one's liking, so that the framework be accepted as the basis upon which to build. The most successful teacher thinks least of his own rights and most of the rights of his pupils.

THE GEOGRAPHY QUESTION.

BY REV. THOS. R. TAYLOR.

Geography should be banished from the place it occupies in our secondary and grammar schools, and in its place should be introduced the study of languages—of German and French, or Latin and Greek. This should be done for the following reasons:

1. *Children can not master Geography.* Some parts of it they

understand clearly and study with pleasure and profit; but there are large portions which are as far beyond their grasp as the Cosmography of Kepler or the Principia of Newton. Such a study composed of the easy and difficult, the plain and the abstruse, the simple and the profound, is admirably calculated to confuse the mind, to discourage investigation, and to heap up obstacles in the way of success in subsequent studies. It is that which we see clearly, and comprehend thoroughly, that gives us strength of mind and tenacity of memory. Every psychologist knows that to attempt the mastery of a subject and fail, suffer defeat, is a positive injury.

2. And apposite to the foregoing, *the study of Geography, as now taught, weakens the memory.* The memory invariably fails to retain what is indistinctly seen, or comprehended only in part; possessed confusedly. The memory is injured by attempting that which is manifestly impossible, namely, retaining a vast heterogeneous mass of facts, descriptions, names, and data, which are almost wholly disconnected—standing apart as so many isolated subjects, without any center of gravitation, or bond of union.

3. Geography should be banished from its place in our common schools, because *it is more difficult than Latin, or French, or German.* This may safely be postulated, and left for the consideration of the observing and thoughtful. In fact, it needs no proof. Every one who has pursued these studies, knows it to be true. No one will pretend to say that the syntax of the French or the Latin is as difficult as mathematical geography; and no one will pretend to say that the vocabulary of any single language is as difficult as the vocabulary of geography. Take any list or tabular collation of geographical names that is nearly full, such as is found in Webster's Unabridged Dictionary, and you will find that it contains more than ten thousand names. These belong not exclusively to any one language, nor to any score of languages, but are gathered from all the languages of the earth. Here is a jargon of all babblings. The "Parthians, and Medes, and Elamites, and dwellers in Mesopotamia, and in Judea, and Cappadocia, in Pontus and Asia, Phrygia, and Pamphylia, in Egypt, and in parts of Lybia, about Cyrene, and strangers of Rome, Jews and Proselytes, Cretes and Arabians", who mingled in the celebration of Pentecost at Jerusalem, are not a beginning of this interminable Babel. Here are great multitudes of significant names, gathered from every country in the world, every

the sea, which must be carefully and laboriously spelled
ur much abused children, and, with an infinite amount
and effort, properly pronounced and remembered.
f a child filling its untrained mouth, and burdening its
memory with words like Michilimackinac, Guancavelica,
oslaw, Reichelsheim, and hundreds of others equally
to pronounce and retain. There is probably not a
in the country who would not feel embarrassed if asked
ounce these barbarous combinations in public: how ab-
n to expect our boys and girls to memorize them!

ography should be banished from our common schools, *its study consumes so much precious time.* Children study
hy three, four, five, or even six years in some of our
in Ohio. As soon as our children leave the primary
hey begin geography, and the most important portion
lives is devoted to this unimportant study. This precious
uld be devoted to laying a broad and permanent founda-
such an education as will develop all the mental powers,
perly inform the mind. To this end geography is of no
l value. It is almost wholly disjoined from all the studies
ier education. A curriculum of study should be a chain,
a rope of sand; or it should be a series of stepping
in which every elevation should prepare for an easy,
scent. If possible, it should be like the course in mathe-
n which every step forward is so connected with the
o more fully explain it, and fix it in the memory. Geog-
s not so related to any course of study, and hence the
time in suffering it to occupy so large a place in the
of children.

ography should be banished, because, as a science, *it is ly to advanced scholars*—to those who have studied geom-
igonometry, astronomy; also mineralogy, geology, and
also ethnology and natural history. When these pre-
studies are mastered, one can approach the study of
hy fully prepared to understand and enjoy it. Then it
a pleasure and a success, and then it will require but a
rm of school to complete it. Now contrast this success-
satisfactory study of this science, accomplished in a sin-
, with the present method of dragging through tedious
childhood's precious time to accomplish nothing—for all
s of properly initiating the child into a profitable course
, absolutely nothing! And the mass of disintegrated

facts acquired in the study of geography, one after another, drops out of the memory, and leaves a blank. A young gentleman or lady in the senior year in the college or seminary can not, in a single term, acquire the French or German, but, in that time, he can acquire a competent knowledge of geography. A child in our common schools can not, by any possibility acquire a thorough knowledge of geography, but with the same amount of time and labor usually bestowed on this science, he can become familiar with the German or French. If geography were banished, not indeed entirely from our schools, but from the large and important place it now occupies, the course of study might be so arranged that children who expect to take a collegiate course could study Latin, others German or French, and others, who do not wish to study languages, music, drawing, and painting. For the benefit of these students while passing through their curriculum, and for convenience in general reading, it would be well to study descriptive geography a single term, in which a compendium of this branch of the science could be mastered.

These languages should supersede geography for the following reasons:

1. Because the study of language is less difficult than geography, and is better adapted to the capabilities of children. Some may doubt this declaration, and their doubts may arise from a remembrance of the manner in which they toiled through the interminable labyrinth of the old-style Latin grammar—as dry and abstruse as a disquisition on the satellites of Jupiter. But now we are all aware that this is not the best method of teaching a language to children. The child should begin a language very much as it begins its vernacular tongue. A Latin book for beginners on the method of Olendorff with the German, accompanied with proper verbal instruction by a competent teacher, would be found an easy and delightful study for children. Geography is a heterogeneous mass of materials, without natural arrangement or cohesion, which never can be associated into a single compact entirety. A language is a beautifully arranged and symmetrical temple, where every single thing suggests all the rest, where such significance and use are inherent in every part as to secure its easy comprehension and retention in the memory.

2. Language should supersede geography because childhood is the time to acquire language. God has so constituted us. Observation, too, teaches us this. A child at the age of three

speaks a language fluently and well. A son of Prof. Lacroix, of the Ohio Wesleyan University, at Delaware, at five years old, could speak three languages, the English, German, and French. The son of the ex-Emperor Napoleon, at the same age, could speak four languages. German and French parents immigrating to this country will require long years to acquire a partial knowledge of the English, while at the same time their little three-year-olds learn it perfectly in a twelve month. There is no characteristic of the mind that is more prominently pronounced than the fact that early life—*childhood*—is the time to acquire language. Then it can be done with facility and accuracy. In this regard, here "is the tide which taken at the flood leads on to fortune", but neglected we labor all our lives at infinite disadvantage. Then why put the cart before the horse? Why cheat childhood of such immense advantages, which can be reaped so readily, and impose upon its tender strength an intellectual burden fit only for its sturdy, developed maturity?

3. By studying the Latin and Greek classics early in life the most mature and accurate scholarship is attained. The old college curriculum is undoubtedly the best mental training. Scholars can not dispense with the learned languages. Nothing can be substituted for them without deterioration in scholarship. Nearly all the great scholars, philosophers, statesmen, and literary men of the world, who have been distinguished in any department of intellectual labor, acquired the Latin and Greek languages in early life. Childhood and youth are the golden period for learning language, the period of acquisition, the time in which the preliminaries of a literary or professional life should be completed, and got out of the way, so that the strength of early manhood and the maturity of middle age may be devoted to advanced investigation and reflection. In this country many are employing manhood's precious time in collecting materials when they should be building. Alas, they have squandered childhood's valuable years in poring over lists of geographic unpronounceables, and they now realize that that lost time can never be reclaimed. European scholars hold their immense advantage over American almost solely from the fact of their vast superiority as linguists. Our graduates go to Europe to finish their education. America goes to Europe as Rome went to Athens. The superior scholarship of Europeans is due to the fact that, in the arrangement of their literary course, they exercise some common sense. They

do not suffer a branch of study as unimportant as geography to occupy all of childhood's years.

The Latin and Greek languages are literary quarries of inexhaustible wealth; but to be appreciated, or to be remunerative, they must be studied in their own vocabularies and syntax. Their beauty and their power can not be seen through the medium of a translation. Their riches can not be gathered by a proxy; he who would secure them must himself delve in the mine. Homer and Virgil were the greatest poets of antiquity: men of unsurpassed genius, imagination, power of expression, and taste. But who reads translations of their works? As well may you turn aside from God's matchless emblem in the clouds to admire a painted rainbow, as to look for the beauties and excellencies of the ancient classics in translations.

There are many teachers who are most successful instructors, but who fail to secure good situations because they have no knowledge of Latin. What teacher is there, who has never studied any language but his own, but would gladly give all his knowledge of geography for a very little Latin, or German, or French? How easy it would be for him to acquire a competent knowledge of geography, but what a task it seems to begin Latin.

Is it not a marvelous thing that educators have not seen all this; that they have not learned lessons of wisdom from observation and experience? That they have not agitated this subject until a reformation could be accomplished?

Only convince the people that their children can acquire Latin, or French, or German, in the same time and with the same amount of study as are now bestowed upon geography, and there will be a revolution of sentiment and practice throughout the land. The great obstacle in the way of banishing geography and introducing the study of languages, is a want of preparation for it on the part of the great mass of teachers. But this obstacle appears greater when viewed from a distance, than it really is. Only let our teachers set to work resolutely to prepare themselves, and this most desirable revolution can be inaugurated in a single year.

Lancaster, Ohio, Sept. 8, 1871.

THE teacher should be an artist, and the teacher of a little child should be the artist of artists.—ED.

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

SECONDARY SERIES.—No. III. ARITHMETIC.

BY WM. F. PHELPS, WINONA, MINN.

The second paper of the current series presented a carefully laborated syllabus of the topics embraced in the course of instruction for the intermediate classes in our district schools. *That paper was designed to be a chart for the study and guidance of the teacher in the orderly elucidation of the fundamental principles and processes of Arithmetic.* It should be closely studied by the instructor who desires to proceed according to the natural order in the evolution of this subject.

It is proposed in this article to present the sketch of a lesson in Notation and Numeration, to be followed also by another in addition.

I. NOTATION AND NUMERATION.—Point of the lesson: to teach thousands' period, and also to familiarize the pupil with the places of thousandths, ten-thousandths and hundred-thousandths. In this case the children are supposed to have been taught the places and values of the figures occupying the first or units' period, and also those in the places of tenths and hundredths. Begin the lesson by reviewing units' period, and also the places of tenths and hundredths. Let the class repeat 10 hundredths = 1 tenth; 10 tenths = 1 unit, etc. By questioning, the teacher leads the class to perceive and say that, as we proceed toward the left, the figures *increase* in value: thus, tens are 10 times as great as units; hundreds are ten times as great as tens, etc. As we proceed toward the right, on the contrary, the figures *decrease* in value: thus, tenths are ten times as small as units, hundredths are ten times as small as tenths, and one hundred times as small as units, etc. The teacher questions and the class answers that tens occupy the first place at the left of units; tenths the first place at the right of units; hundreds the second place at the left of units, and hundredths the second place at the right, etc. Therefore, a figure whose value is ten times as great as hundreds, should be placed at the *left* of hundreds (teacher here gives the name of thousands), and one whose value is ten times smaller than hundredths, should be placed at the *right* of hundredths. The teacher now leads the class to compare the names tens and tenths, hundreds and hundredths, and thus to give the

terms thousandths, etc. Lead the class to the conclusion that the thousands' place is the third place to the left of units, and thousandths' the third place to the right, etc. The remaining terms to millionths, or beyond, if necessary, should be taught in the same manner. The teacher gives the term second or thousands' period. Class draw conclusion that each period is composed of three figures, units, tens, and hundreds.

Such questions as the following may be asked at this point: Reduce or change 3 tens to units; 4 tenths to hundredths, etc. Change 60 hundredths to tenths; 80 tens to hundreds; 50 hundreds to thousands, etc. On which side of units' place is tens' place? Thousandths'? Tenths'? Hundreds'? Hundredths'? etc. How many decimal places are required to express tenths? Hundredths? Thousandths? How many places to express hundreds? etc. What is the name of the fourth place at the right of units? Third place at the left? Second place at the right? etc. The teacher may give numbers expressed in words for the class to write in figures, and numbers expressed in figures for the children to translate into words, etc.

By this course of drill, the pupils will become familiar with the *laws of notation and numeration* and, at the same time, with the nature of decimals, thus removing a great source of embarrassment in their future progress.

II. ADDITION. Point: to teach the manner of writing numbers for addition, and of analyzing examples.

The teacher commences the lesson with a few examples to be analyzed mentally. From these examples the children are led to see that, in adding, dollars are added with dollars, cents with cents, etc., and they are brought to the conclusion that units must be added with units, tenths with tenths, etc., and that it will be more convenient to place like numbers to be added in the same column.

The teacher first gives examples in which the sum of any column will not exceed 9. Here it makes no difference in which column we begin to add. Let the class be drilled until they can add accurately and quite rapidly examples of this kind. When the children have become expert in these, the teacher should give other examples in which the sums of the columns exceed 9; as, find the sum of 643.6 and 788.9. Class stand before the blackboard. The teacher does the writing, while the children tell her what to write, all being employed on the same example. The children tell how to write the numbers. The teacher tells where

to begin to add. Children say 9 tenths and 6 tenths are 15 tenths, equal to 1 unit and 5 tenths, after having been properly questioned and led to perceive that truth. Class thus reduces 15 tenths to 1.5, which numbers are written in their proper places in the sum by the teacher. Children are next led to say 8 units and 3 units are 11 units, which equal 1 ten and 1 unit, to be written in their proper places as before. In the same manner the remaining columns may be disposed of. Or, if this be regarded too difficult a step, the problem may be made thus to appear, the sum of each column being written entire:

643.6
788.9
1.5
11
12
13
1432.5

In this case, the class being questioned by the teacher, unite the like terms in the sum, and are finally led to analyze as follows: 9 tenths and 6 tenths are 15 tenths = to .5 and 1. Write .5 in tenths' place in the sum, and add 1 to the units' column. Then 1 unit and 8 units are 9 units and 3 units are 12 units = to 2 units and 1 ten. Write the 2 units in the units' place in the sum, and add the 1 ten to the tens' column, etc.

In this manner the class is to be drilled upon every variety of examples until the principles are familiar, and until accuracy and rapidity are acquired in the operation. By trial the children are led to discover that it is most convenient to begin on the right to add.

We shall next give sketches of lessons in Subtraction, Multiplication, and Division, applying the same principles in the analysis of examples.

SPELLING AS AN EDUCATOR.—IV.

BY W. WATKINS.

In former papers we have considered spelling in a technical light, as an art to be learned, and we have described methods of training by which the pupil may be made familiar with the written forms of the words which he meets in his reader. These methods, though first in the order of time, are the least interesting, and perhaps the least important part of our work. Until the pupil has learned to write with ease, any general culture in spelling is impossible. One difficulty at a time is enough.

With pupils who can write with facility, the spelling-lesson may be made a means of culture. Some one has justly remarked of labor, that he, who gets only his pay, is cheated. So we regard the pupil, who has nothing to show for the years of labor bestowed upon spelling, but the mastery of the written forms of words, as certainly cheated. True school work has in it something for both mind and heart, something which makes wiser and better. The pupil goes from the recitation knowing or feeling something new.

A slavish adherence to the mere letter of the lesson destroys the spirit of culture. It is possible that the child, who learns nothing but spelling from the spelling-lesson, may become a good speller, but it is also possible that he may grow up ignorant, narrow-minded, and even vicious—that is, that, as far as good is concerned, he shall be an uneducated person. Such characters we sometimes meet—dare we say that they are not produced in school?—but we have no desire to increase their number.

We like the skill, but do not wish to purchase it at the expense of character. It is not enough that school exercises be not bad for the mind and heart; they must be positively good. The primary idea of the school is that of true culture, and not that of technical learning. It is to assist weak and ignorant children to grow up into wise and strong men and women. Every lesson must tend to this end. All school work should be educative. A word in due season, a remark, a question in the middle of a lesson, brought in as collateral to the subject, may prove of great benefit. All educators insist upon the value of indirect instruction. Experienced teachers have observed the willfulness of children's minds, and that their attention can not be forced. We may take advantage of these known characteristics. "Being crafty", let us "catch them with guile."

Our school opportunities of indirect instruction have been, like mountain streams, running to waste; let us now collect them into one channel, and systematically apply them to the education of our pupils. This exercise shall be known as spelling. As it bears this name, and has no other apparent object than to teach the written forms of words, we have the pupil's mind ready to receive any impressions which we may choose to give. He is free, free to accept or reject any thing we give him, and this is the best reason in the world why he should accept it, if it is good. We place food before him, but do not press him to eat. We do not ask whether he has eaten, much less whether he has digested

it. We know that if the food is of the right kind, he will eat it, digest it, and it will make him grow. We know, too, that all this goes on best in silence and in secret. The grandest forces of nature are quiet and secret in their operation. With the mysteries of growth she permits no tampering. Such thoughts and perceptions as come unsought, and pass unconsciously into our being, make us what we are. The true educator must be content to labor in secret. He who is willing to walk by faith and not by sight, who is satisfied with the approval of his conscience and his God, he whose heart's desire is in age to look back upon a life spent in toils for man, he, and he only, is ready to adopt a system of indirect instruction. He who must have immediate applause at any cost, he who has no faith in anything which he can not see, need consider this subject no further; for "per cents" are no more tests of the work we propose than the ruler and calipers are tests of the effects of beefsteaks. We may make our spelling-lesson tell upon almost any part of the pupil's education. One of the first things of which the teacher would think would be to make the spelling a language-lesson. In this way we may increase the scanty store of words possessed by our pupils, may compare the uses of words, and may practice writing those which are already more or less familiar. Whatever we do, we will proceed from things to words, and from spoken to written words. That is, we will teach spelling objectively. Let us take for example a "Lesson on a Rope." By questions we obtain from the class, say, the following words:

1 rope	6 cord	11 wrapping-yarn	16 cotton
2 strands	7 line	12 wrapping-twine	17 sea-grass
3 rope-yarn	8 twine	13 pack-thread	18 linen
4 twisted	9 string	14 cordage	19 rope-maker
5 cable	10 thread	15 hemp	20 rope-walk

These words are written on slates as fast as they are found. If the class are unable to give a word when asked for, we call special attention to the idea, and then give the word. If the lesson contains more than two or three new words, it is too hard for the class. The second and third words of our lesson are the parts of which the rope is composed, from the fifth to the thirteenth are the names of things of the rope-kind, ending in cordage which covers them all. The other words describe materials and hint at manufacture.

The words written, we correct errors in spelling. Let the first pupil write the first word on the board, and all compare

their slates with what he has written. Proceed in like manner with all the words. Practice upon the words as a review lesson till they are fully learned. The skillful teacher will bring this lesson within reasonable limits. The number of words should not exceed twenty. The words are written in columns and number, but do not begin with capitals unless for reason.

Should we illustrate by other lessons pointed in different directions, we would overstep the limits of one article.

Middletown, Ohio.

NOTE.—The September number, p. 484, l. 4, has "reuniting" for *rewriting* —the first typographical error which has ever appeared in my contributions.

W. W.

THE KINDERGARTEN.

BY ELIZABETH P. PEABODY.

I am induced to take up the pen by seeing a recommendation of a young ladies' school, which I have no doubt is a good one, over the signature of one of our most prominent men, justly regarded as an authority in all good works. The words I regretted were, "The lady successfully translates what is of use in the Kindergarten into our American uses." With all respect to the writer, I must say that no one thoroughly acquainted with Froebel's system could have written the sentence. I have heard others use similar expressions, asking, "Can the Kindergarten be adapted to American wants?" or, "Is it not putting off mental work too long, and making school a mere play-ground?"

To the first query I would reply, How can climate, or political institutions or language and customs make any difference in the proper treatment of children's brains, or with the true order of mental development? Froebel studied this order like a man of science, as he was. It took him more than twenty-five years of thought and practice combined to make out his system. Many an intelligent mother and good teacher have happened upon isolated points of his training; but in forty years of practical teaching, twenty of which were in schools, and the rest in families, my own and others, I have never known a truly philosophical or scientific plan of early education till I knew Froebel's. No one who has ever seriously and persistently engaged in this

work, can have failed, I think, to ask herself whether she has followed the best plan of doing it. For my own part, with whom teaching has always been a passion, I was always asking myself the question, and many is the book of education I have sat down to read, with a hope in my heart that one perchance wiser than myself had found out the secret—*the true order of the development of the faculties.* I soon found out that reading and spelling were but a very small part of education for little children, and was often led to postpone these to a degree others thought very objectionable; but only in isolated cases did I apprehend that it ought not to be allowed at all at a very early age. Froebel has convinced me that education should begin with the training of the senses. Like all great discoveries, when they are made, it seems a very simple truth now, for we know that children are the victims of their senses, and that nothing can effectually release them from the thralldom but an intelligent and legitimate use of them, and by their control, through the culture of the highest sentiments. Froebel's eye was ever upon the culture of love in the child?

The first propensity developed in a child is to seize upon what it wants, and it is not often, certainly it is not systematically opposed by teaching it to impart that precious something to one it loves, or at least to share it. In short, *now we know*, we see how true it is that the child itself should be the guide in our plan for its culture, by that natural development which the Kindegarten teacher skillfully organizes, but does not controvert. To controvert it excites only passionate opposition. To organize it makes it the instrument of progress.

Is not every child that is born under the sun a subject for this system, so far?

To the next question, "Is it not putting off mental work too long, and making school a mere play-ground?" I would reply that the amount of culture secured by this mode of developing the mind—by the aid, I mean, of its own *well-trained* senses—is incomparably greater than any that can possibly be given to children by mere reading, or by abstract counting or repetition of facts. If no child ever learned a word till it knew something to talk about, it would be well, and this system almost insures that process. It is easy enough to teach some children the words *cat*, *dog*, and other names of things, if they are placed under the picture of the same, but to teach them in any other way is in my opinion cruel, not because they suffer for each word

visibly, but because it is an unnatural process, and when applied to words that do not even suggest an image, a difficult one. In the infancy of the race, picture-writing was the first mode of expressing ideas otherwise than by the voice. Then came hieroglyphics which are symbolical, and at last these were reduced to letters, also symbolical of sounds and qualities, but we give to little children this late product of the mind of the race for their first brain-work! I have taught several hundred children to read, and always suffered in doing it, when they were not as old as six or seven, because I sympathized with the painful effort of brain. I was the first person (as far as I know) who devised the way of teaching by words instead of letters, and that was to a little Spanish boy of six, and because I saw no other way, but even that easy way was hard for little tots of four or five. I have elsewhere recorded the case of a poor little mortal I was trying to persuade to be "good" one day, by which I meant to look at A and B, and of whom, when I saw that my expression "try to be good" brought tears into his poor little eyes, I inquired, "What does it mean to be good, Lewis?" He replied in a loud burst of grief, "Ter be whipped!" I was too soft-hearted to make my little disciples suffer much in the pursuit of knowledge, and never committed the sin of punishing them for unavailing efforts, but I did beguile them in obedience to the wishes of parents oftener than I now like to remember. I gratefully acknowledge the boon many good mothers granted me of waiting till I was ready, and now that light has burst upon us, let us give up our prejudices and take the good way. The time of little children previous to seven years of age is not so valuable as the condition of their brains; but in this system of instruction the time is far better spent than formerly. No one who has had much experience can have failed to observe how much shorter time it takes for children to learn to read after they are six years old than earlier. In our language, the anomalous pronunciation, or spelling, or both, makes the process more difficult than in most others, and we do not teach it in the most philosophical way, or the easiest way for children. It can be taught by using the Continental or Italian alphabet so as to serve for the pronunciation of Italian, Spanish, German, Swedish, and even French, and by postponing it till a little maturity of observation is attained, we gain thus a very great advantage. This is only mentioned as an additional reason why we should adopt Froebel's principle upon the subject, instead of "adapting his system to

American wants," which really means only to American prejudices, the sooner given up the better. I question whether another point could be found in which any one could suggest a change. Let me illustrate a little, to show that we do not wish to put off the period of learning to read because it is troublesome, or to substitute play for earnest work. The words earnest work may alarm some persons who fear too early a stimulus of any kind. No one can deprecate the premature stimulus of the brain more than I do. Idleness itself is better than that, when it is possible to keep the devil away from the idle. I am thinking of thousands of little three-year old creatures who might be cherubs, but who live in gutters, and hear wicked things said, and see wicked things done all the time. If the three years apprenticeship to evil could be changed to three years of blessed work made out of play, the primary schools as now organized would receive a very different set of subjects from those who now frequent them. * * * * * * *

The imperfection of schools and the disastrous effects of them, as generally administered, upon the moral natures of children, lead many to sequester their little ones too much from companions of their own age. The sooner they are put together, *under good guidance*, the better, but that requisite is imperative. The circumstances must be such as to insure the tenderness of the mother to each one, the defense of each one against the encroachments of the rest, and the unexcited, healthy, natural action of the mind. Imagine one's self looking down from a balloon into all the unroofed nurseries of a city. To these most of the children of the wealthy are confined for the greater part of the time, and under what influences? One shudders at the spectacle, and does not wonder that rich men's sons, for instance, do not turn out well, for they learn there what they may never unlearn. Look at the little denizens of hovels, from which even the mother's love is banished by her daily necessity of finding work to feed hungry mouths; and watch the poor little frequenters of streets, gutters, and stagnant pools, in both cities and suburbs. Let us have Kindergartens!—*Herald of Health.*

To EDUCATE children well is one of the most important duties of parents and guardians.

Editorial Department.

—— In our report of the discussion of Mr. Williams's paper on "The Use of Text-Books", in the National Educational Convention, we stated that Sup't Harris, of St. Louis, claimed that "the great thing in education is to teach the pupil *how to use text-books*." We have received a note from Mr. Harris saying that this statement is not correct. He says:

"The words I used were: 'The great thing in school education is to teach the pupil how to use the *printed page*; how to use the library, which is the repository of the collected and preserved wisdom of the human race.' I compared the pupil, thus trained, to a skillful organist who could command all the keys or stops of a great organ. Perhaps a proper use of text-books might lead a pupil into the proper use of books in general, but I did not make any such assertion. The misstatement of my remarks arose, I believe, from the carelessness of a reporter of one of our daily newspapers."

We very cheerfully make the correction, and regret that, owing to absence, we were obliged to depend upon a reporter's account of this discussion. We were so much misrepresented by the same reporter, that we can fully sympathize with our friend.

—— An abuse of a good agency is sometimes best corrected by an advocacy of its entire abolition. This is quite sure to arrest attention, and secure a better understanding of its uses and advantages. This consideration has led us to publish the paper in this number earnestly advocating the banishing of geography from our common schools. It is unquestionably true that many unimportant facts and details are crowded into the geographies in general use in our schools. Most series of geographies contain too many books, and, as a consequence, too much time is spent upon this branch of study. But we can not agree with our correspondent that the proper place for geography is in the higher school. It is true that the science—the *physics* of the earth—can not be mastered by children, but the study has a perceptive phase admirably adapted to the earlier years of school life. We are sure that we studied nothing in our boyhood, reading excepted, which has been more useful to us or has afforded us more real enjoyment than geography. We memorized the contents of both Olney's and Smith's geographies, accomplishing each task in a few weeks, and, as a result, we gained a general idea of the earth's surface, its natural and political divisions, its zones, their limits, climates, etc. We also retained many facts relating to the governments, religions, occupations, etc., of the people of different races and nations. Our study of the maps gave us permanent mental pictures, so to speak, of the earth's surface, and these have enabled us to give "a local habitation", as well as a name, to the great events of past and passing history. It is true that we did not retain a tithe of the details we so zealously memorized, but the more important have remained as land marks to aid in locating the events and places of which we have since heard or read.

But we have no desire to enter upon the defense of geography. There is more need that its abuse be pointed out and corrected, and, hoping that our correspondent's thoughtful paper may contribute to this result, we commend its careful perusal to all our readers.

—Sup't W. T. Harris, of St. Louis, has suggested to his board of education the adoption of a regulation prohibiting the use of the text book in the recitation by the teacher whenever the pupil is expected to recite without the book; and that the teacher be recommended to use a syllabus of topics or questions, either written or printed, in the conduct of such recitations. He thinks that the greater bulk of the evils complained of by intelligent parents, who find their children becoming mere cramming machines, instead of intelligent investigators, results from the practice of many teachers of using the text-book during the recitation as "a source of information from which to draw a supply for their own use on the occasion, thus making up for their own lack of preparation." "That the teacher should know as much of the lesson as the pupil, does not need statement." We have often expressed the wish that there might be a self-executing law which would forbid any teacher to attempt to conduct a recitation before he has so thoroughly mastered the lesson as to be able to recite it—to change places with the pupil with credit. The slavish use of text-books in conducting recitations is "evil and only evil and that continually." It degrades the teacher, deadens the recitation, and kills the interest of the pupil. The teacher should stand before his class so full of the lesson that he may have a free hand and a free eye.

— One of the most interesting features of the late meeting of the Ohio Teachers' Association in Sandusky, was the exhibition of classes from the public schools of the city. The hall was so arranged and so liberally provided with blackboards that some two hundred pupils could engage in blackboard exercises at once. The audience was most interested in the language exercises by the primary classes; the drawing of maps, leaves, and flowers by the secondary classes, and the crayon illustrations by high-school pupils. The language exercises were written on the board very neatly and accurately, and, making due allowance for special preparation, they showed that the subject was receiving commendable attention in the schools. The skill exhibited in map-drawing indicated systematic instruction and much practice. The results in drawing were surprising, since this branch is not taught in the schools in a systematic manner. According to Mr. Cowdery's statement, the pupils are encouraged to draw, but receive very little instruction. The skill attained is the result of practice, and this is secured little by little. This shows that drawing may be easily introduced into all our schools, and that most valuable results may be secured by very little effort.

—"A Parent", writing to the *Weekly Spirit of the Times*, is very severe upon the School Superintendents' Association of Pennsylvania for its position on "the woman movement in teaching." He maintains that if there is to be

no distinction in the wages of the sexes, men must teach for women's wages or leave the profession. The pay will necessarily be equalized at a low figure, and the movement will be to "throw the whole free school system into the hands of women, most of them yet in their teens." He thinks he understands why so many city superintendents advocate the movement. Their position is pleasant and their pay good—from $1,500 to $3,000. "To have a bevy of well-dressed ladies around, doing their beck and bid, offering no ambitious aspirants to oust them from their positions, but looking up to them as their guardian angel, makes these positions not unenviable." Men, educated and experienced, are more independent. The main objection which he urges against the exclusive employment of women as teachers, is the fact that but few of them look upon teaching as a permanent occupation. Marriage is the door through which they expect to make their exit from the school-room. They enter "at sweet seventeen, pretty, loquacious, and lovely", and "they teach, if successful, until——until they get married, which all expect and most do", and thus *ad infinitum* the schools will be largely taught by inexperienced girls. There is force as well as point in some of these statements; but we fail to see that the adoption of the principle of paying male and female teachers equal pay for work equal in quality and amount, will necessarily exclude men from the profession. What is needed is a public sentiment that will demand and pay for superior service. The very fact that but few women intend to make teaching a permanent business, will always leave room "on the upper shelf" for men. Let salaries be graded up to requisite qualifications, and then let all positions in the profession be open alike to men and women. But we see that this "let" may have a practical difficulty in it.

RELIEF FOR CHICAGO TEACHERS.

In no one of the many accounts of the Chicago fire, which we have read, has there been any reference to the number and value of the school buildings destroyed—by no means the least of the many calamities involved in that terrible conflagration. There were several large and costly school buildings in that section of the city, which was swept by the resistless storm of fire. We estimate that full 15,000 pupils were deprived of school accommodations by the destruction of these buildings, and that over 200 teachers were thrown out of employment, many of whom lost every thing. But few of these pupils can be accommodated in the buildings which were not burned, since these were full before the fire, and more school rooms were needed.

It will take many months, if not several years, for the crippled city to erect new buildings, and meanwhile much precious time and opportunity will be lost Thousands of these unfortunate pupils will suffer the effects of this calamity, in lessened usefulness and enjoyment, long after the fire swept city has risen from its ashes, stronger and grander than before. More elegant and substantial business blocks, public buildings, and dwellings will soon replace those destroyed, but this loss of school instruction and training is irreparable.

it is not our present purpose to try to convey an idea of the educational
quence of this fearful and unparalleled destruction of school property.
ther wish to call special attention to the fact that scores of Chicago
rs are destitute and out of employment, and to suggest that they be
lly remembered by their fellow teachers. The teachers of Cleveland
et a noble example. They have each donated one day's wages for the
of Chicago teachers, the amount thus raised being nearly $1,000. We
that this suggestion was not made earlier, but charity is timely as long
re is need. We take the liberty to say that contributions may be sent to
I. L. Pickard, Sup't Schools, Chicago, who, we know, will take pleasure
ributing them according to the wishes of the donors. We need make no
. A hint to the generous teachers of the country is sufficient

CINCINNATI NORMAL INSTITUTE.

believe that Cincinnati is the only city in the country, which regularly
s the first week of each school year to the special preparation of its
rs for the work before them. For six years past, this policy has been
d in Cincinnati, and with very satisfactory results. The Normal Insti-
made practically a school of methods, and as such it is exerting a
d influence on the entire corps of teachers. There has been from year
a steady growth not only in professional but also in general intelligence.
are assured that the late session of this institute, which began August
continued six days, was, in all respects, one of the most successful yet
There was a laudable ambition on the part of the home teachers who
signed teaching duties, to make their work worthy the approbation of an
ent corps of instructors for a great city. The music, under the direc-
the regular teachers of that branch, surpassed the excellence of that
ner sessions; and a like good work was done in penmanship and draw-
the superintendents of those branches.

institute was fortunate, too, in its outside help. The instruction in elo-
was by Mr. O. H. Fethers, one of the editors of the *Western Educa-
Review*, who, instead of spending his time in lectures on the art of ora-
d the importance of his branch of study, gave it to class drill and the
ation of such a course of instruction as could be carried into the school
plied in teaching the various grades.

ident Tappan, of Kenyon College, gave instruction in arithmetic and
y geography in hand, devoting his attention mainly to the former. As
supposed from his well known ability as a mathematician, his work
h original and practical.

Orton, of Antioch College, lectured on entomology and geology. These
s were not only received with great favor by the teachers, but also by
ge number of other citizens who came in from day to day to listen to

lectures of Prof. Dickinson, principal of Westfield (Mass.) Normal
on the philosophy of methods of instruction, can not be too highly

praised. While they were clear and simple in their mode of presenting the subject, they reached down to foundation principles and built thereon a structure firm and symmetrical. Nothing, indeed could have been better suited to the wants of teachers ambitious to ground their professional work in the truths of a correct philosophy.

The committee having charge of the institute, adopted a rule requiring the teachers to make notes, in books provided for the purpose, on all the lectures and exercises which they were to attend, and to return these note-books at the close of the institute to the office of the Superintendent of Schools for the inspection of the committee. A better plan to secure constant and careful attention could scarcely have been devised. It is but just to say that the success of the institute did not result more from the ability of the instructors than from the earnestness and sympathy of their listeners.

The German teachers had exercises in their own language, the forenoon of each day, but joined with the English teachers in the exercises of the afternoon.

COLLEGE DOORS OPENING.

"We find it stated", says *Every Saturday*, "that five young women enter the freshman class of Vermont University; that a young woman has made application for admission this fall to the Law Department of Harvard; that there is an increased pressure for the opening of the doors of Brown and Williams to the hitherto excluded sex; that the board of consideration is sure to report favorably upon the applications of young women for admission to Amherst; and that one of its trustees will give Cornell a quarter of a million, of dollars on condition that it receive female students. These separate facts, of little importance taken singly, become of consequence when put together To the minds of many persons they indicate that most of our Eastern colleges will be forced, at a time not far distant, to grant their facilities and privileges to young women as unreservedly as they now do to young men."

The editor adds that no one can tell, with any thing like certainty, whether this mingling of the sexes in our higher institutions of learning will be for the advantage of both or either. He thinks that neither the experience of our public schools nor that of Oberlin and other Western colleges settles the question, for the reason that the conditions and circumstances are not the same. If there were nothing in issue but the attainment of knowledge and scholarship, he doubts that the Eastern colleges would be opened to women in this generation. "But many thoughtful men and women", says he, "sincerely believe that both sexes would be benefited by the fellowship of student days and all or most of these old and great colleges of the East will undoubtedly be opened within the next ten years to young women, in the hopeful expectation that wiser and nobler and stronger manhood and womanhood will be gained by the association of the sexes." He believes that this experiment is one in morals as well as in education, and that the result will depend chiefly upon the new comers.

SCHOOL INCENTIVES.

re to re-affirm all that we recently wrote respecting the para
ance of right incentives in school instruction and management:
gh that the teacher secures diligence in study and good order.
must be attained by an appeal to motives which quicken the
f right and duty, and develop and nourish his higher moral
er a temporary interest in study nor external propriety of con-
tes for the sacrifice of those higher principles of character which
owth, but of abiding potency and value. It is an easy thing to
ld's conduct by punishments and to urge him forward by artifi-
ut when the restraining hedge is broken down and the tempo-
t is wanting, then there is seen the need of the power of self-
self impulsion—an indwelling monitor and a never-failing im-
ost dangerous of transitions is that which carries a youth from
of outward control to the non-restraints of a condition of untried
chool life of the pupil should prepare him to be a self-governing

principles in mind let us try to distinguish between right and
es, and determine the relative worth of the former.
id most obvious classification of incentives is their separation
ch are *natural* and those which are *artificial.* In the former
ll those incentives which arise from the nature of the subject or
result, not a necessary consequence, of full success or complete
Among these are—

The joy of duty done.
The pleasure of self-control.
The inward reward of obedience.
The satisfaction of success.
The hope of future good.
The desire of knowledge.
The pleasure of its acquisition.
The satisfaction of overcoming difficulties.
The desire to excel.
The approval of conscience.
The approval of others.
The approval of God.

ction will show that each of these incentives is the natural re-
nt of some duty or achievement of school life. The human soul
ed that every right act or possession brings with it a joy, a satis-
anticipation, and this is both a reward and an incitant. What
narily to make this natural reward conscious and potent, is the
uccess. The child submits his acts or acquisitions to the supe-
of parent or teacher. If approved the full assurance of success
ious satisfaction, joy, or hope. His reward is thus made sure.
reason men seek the approval of their peers or superiors. They
their success tested by some standard without and above them.

Such approval removes self-distrust, and makes rewards operative and satisfying, which might otherwise lack potency.

This view enables us to place among natural incentives all expressions of approval which furnish palpable evidence of success. Among these are—

The expressed approbation of the teacher.

The attainment of an assigned standard.

That these may be natural incentives, they must be signs or measures of actual success, and must be so awarded and so received. When they become the *end* of the pupil's efforts—when he ceases to look up from the shadow to the substance—then they are no longer natural rewards. In some of our graded schools the desire to reach high marks is the "ruling passion" of the pupils. They study for "per cents"; and *cram* for "per cents."

Among natural incentives we should probably also place—

An advancement in studies.

A promotion to higher classes.

These are the natural rewards of successful effort, and yet they may be so impressed on a school as to take the place of ultimate ends, thus becoming the most potent of artificial incentives, concealing or destroying those nobler rewards which border the path of duty.

All artificial rewards and punishments which are thrust between the pupil and the natural rewards of duty and acquisition, are *artificial incentives*. The prime characteristic of such incentives is, that they are artificial substitutes for those higher rewards which flow as consequences from all right action, and as such they become the present motive, the immediate end of effort and conduct. Instead of being the simple evidence of success, they are its alluring reward; instead of making natural rewards operative and potent, they weaken and conceal them.

Among artificial incentives may be included—

Prizes of pecuniary value, as books, medals, etc.

Immunities, as exemption from tasks, examinations, etc.

Privileges, as holidays, early dismissal from school, choice of seats, etc.

It is evident that neither of these three classes of rewards is a natural consequence of the pupil's success or attainments. They are all artificial and temporary substitutes for those rewards which are worthier and more enduring. But they do not lack potency. They may be so incorporated into a system of school management as to become its very life—the all-absorbing end of effort and desire.

It will be noticed that we have not included punishment among school incentives, natural or artificial. Its office is to reform, to restrain, and to urge the pupil forward. It does not incite; it impels. It is the reserved force which is brought up when incentives fail.

We have thus given a simple classification of those motives and influences which incite pupils to high attainments in study and conduct, and which are used as incentives in schools. The line which separates them is clearly defined, and their diverse character affords a basis for determining their relative worth and proper use. Natural incentives spring from the nature of the effort or acquisition, following success or attainment as its natural result, if not its

essary consequence. Artificial incentives are those substituted rewards or ives which are made the immediate end of study and conduct, thus taking place of the higher rewards which flow from successful and right action.

'e now propose to consider the relative worth and proper use of these two ses of incentives.

'e think all will concede that natural incentives are intrinsically superior rtificial. They nourish and strengthen the higher principles of character , at the same time, act through life, springing up spontaneously in the path luty and success. If made potent in childhood, they usually remain potent fter life. Artificial incentives, on the contrary, are transient and treacher- . They allure in youth, but fail in life's needs and conflicts. The child ays incited to duty by some prize, immunity, or privilege, depends in vain such helps in manhood. When school days are over, if not before, knowl- ge must be sought for its own sake or for its uses, and neither integrity nor tue hold in their hands a bribe.

These facts not only indicate the superior worth of natural incentives, but y show the importance of their use in the instruction and control of chil- en. The teacher should appeal to motives that have an abiding potency and lue, and, through such motives, he should strive to quicken the pupil's sense right and duty. Certainly, so long as natural incentives can be made fective in securing study and good conduct, they should be relied upon.

This suggests the proper use of artificial incentives. They are to be resorted , if at all, as *temporary* expedients to lift up a pupil or a school to the plane higher motives. A teacher placed in charge of a badly demoralized school, ismissed all pupils whose conduct was good, a half hour before the regular me for closing school. This was done at first each half day; then once a ay; but as soon as she had the school well in hand, the practice was wholly ropped. We have seen whispering and tardiness checked in the same man- er, the incentive of an early dismissal or a half holiday being used *to prepare he way* for better motives. It is evident that a dismissal before the close of chool as a reward, will prove, for such a purpose, much more effective than a etention after school. But to use such means when natural incentives can be ade effective, is needlessly to sacrifice the higher principles of moral training. ncentives intrinsically wrong are, of course, never to be used.

The true principle governing the use of incentives, we stated in our Septem- er number. The use of the lower should be temporary, and preparatory to ose which are higher and nobler. Of two motives equally effective, the igher should always be placed before the pupil. There is a difficulty in carry- g out this principle in large schools, owing to the great difference in the haracter of pupils. Motives effective with the majority may fail to control or npel the minority, or *vice versa*. In trying to obviate this difficulty, teachers re liable to make the serious mistake of placing low incentives before an ntire school, in order to reach a few pupils. The true course is to grade in- entives up to pupils, and not pupils down to incentives. Here as elsewhere, here must be a wise adaptation of means to condition, even at a sacrifice of niformity.

Among proper incentives most liable to abuse are merit marks and tickets—

incentives in very general use in our schools. The true design of the "Marking System", as it is technically called, is to give the pupil a definite and tangible *measure* of his success. To this end the character of his recitations and his conduct is marked daily on a numerical scale, and averages are made monthly, or oftener, showing his standing. The value of this record depends, of course, upon its accuracy. When it fails to indicate the pupil's actual success, it loses its historical character, and misleads. The same is true of tickets when bestowed as evidence of the teacher's favor rather than of the pupil's merit.

But the special abuse to which merit marks and tickets are subject, is the making of them the immediate end of the pupil's efforts. In some schools "per cents" are so magnified that they completely hide what they represent, and the pupils study and recite for them as if they were wages. Sometimes the attainment of a specified standard is rewarded by class rank, by a holiday, or some other privilege. The attention is thus diverted from the true ends of study; the pupil is tempted to cram, if not deceive; and the teacher to mark too high.

MISCELLANY.

—— When notified that a subscriber has failed to receive any number of the Teacher due him, we always remail it.

Errata.—In the "Note on Signs" in the October number, supply the sign — after the word "or" in line 2, page 544, and for "twists" in line 3, read *exists*. We can not account for these errors.——In Mr. Howell's "Common-Sense Grammar" omit "constative" in line 21, page 532; supply *I* before "*my*" in line 18, page 535; and for "to write" in line 15, page 537, read *write ye*.

—— We are often asked curious questions. A subscriber wishes to know why the pupil of the eye is black in nearly every case of good sight. Another wishes to know in what work the Roman Notation is fully explained, including the method of writing the letters to add, subtract, etc. If any of our readers consider these questions worthy of an answer, we shall be glad to hear from them.

—— An editor who recently witnessed an examination of teachers, writes us that he is not surprised that the standard of common-school education is so low. He states that the male applicants were nearly all beardless boys, and that many of the female applicants should attend school at least three years longer before attempting to teach. He concludes that the low wages paid in country districts is committing the education of the children to "striplings", and, as a result, we may expect superficial and haphazard teaching.

—— Thomas W. Harvey, superintendent of the public schools of Painesville, O., was elected State Commissioner of Common Schools at the recent Ohio election. His official term of three years will begin Feb. 10th, 1872. We are very glad to be able to announce that Mr. Harvey has been prevailed upon to reconsider his declinature of the appointment by the Governor to fill the vacancy in the office, caused by Mr. Henkle's resignation. He will enter upon his official duties about the 10th of No-

ıber. Mr. Harvey will bring to the office large experience, broad educational rs, great ability, and a good stock of common sense. We predict that his adistration will be eminently successful.

ERSONAL.—Rev. Charles Beecher, a son of the late Dr. Lyman Beecher, is State rintendent of Common Schools of Florida.

obert May, a veteran Ohio teacher, died at Wilmington, O., Sept. 25, 1871, in 4th year of his age. He taught school sixty years, spending forty-six years of ife in the school-room.

iss E. T. Stewart, last year a teacher in the high school of Chillicothe, O., has pted a position in the high school of Council Bluffs, Iowa.

T. Martz is superintendent of the public schools of Greenville, O.

— MESSRS. ADAMS, BLACKMER & LYON, of Chicago, request us to say to our ers that, though burned out, they are not discouraged. They will resume the ication of their periodicals—"National Sunday-School Teacher", "Sunday-ol Scholar", and "Little Folks"—with the December number. As a part of r subscription list was burned, they request subscribers to communicate with n at once, stating the number of copies they are entitled to, and when their subtion expires. They also announce that they shall resume all their Record and ol Blank business, and that their work is now being done in adjoining cities. admire Chicago pluck.

— W. H. VENABLE, of Cincinnati, will publish about the holidays a volume of oems, with the title of "June on the Miami and Other Poems." The volume contain the "Teacher's Dream", "Vision of Science", and other educational as which are great favorites with teachers. The work will be issued in an ele-16mo. volume, and will be furnished to subscribers by mail for $1.50, payable r in advance or when the book is published. Since no canvassers are employed, ho wish to secure the volume should address Mr. Venable at once. We hope to n that teachers have subscribed as liberally, at least, as his friends outside of the ession.

— THE *Alabama Journal of Education*, started in April last, has been superseded weekly paper, called *The Advance*, and largely devoted to politics and news. edited by Col. Hodgson, State Superintendent of Public Instruction. The *Orleans Advoate*, edited by State Superintendent Conway, is also devoted to ics as well as education. The former is Democratic and the latter Republican, both are decidedly partisan. Such an official union of education and politics d injure the cause of education in the North, and we do not see how it can do rwise in the South.

— WE alluded last year to a controversy in Toledo, Ohio, respecting the admisof colored children into the public schools, there being not enough colored ren in the different wards of the city to organize separate schools for them, and entral colored school being at an inconvenient and unreasonable distance from ral colored families. A majority of the board held that they had no legal right mit colored children into the public schools. The question was referred to four e leading lawyers of the city, two of whom decided that the board had the right two gave an opposite opinion. The question was finally brought before the , but, before a decision was reached, the board, by a vote of four to three, deto admit colored youth to the public schools on precisely the same conditions as youth.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN NORTH CENTRAL STATES.

OHIO.—The Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association met in the Central High School building, Cleveland, on Saturday, Oct. 16th, T. W. Harvey, of Painesville, presiding. The attendance was not as large as at several previous meetings, but the number present indicated a continued interest in the Association. Among the superintendents present from abroad were Messrs. Harvey of Painesville, Henkle of Salem, Findley of Akron, Barnard of Ravenna, Clemens of Ashtabula, Carruthers of Elyria, Thompson of Sandusky City, Furness of Tiffin, Higley of Dayton, and McAdam of Carrollton, several of whom were accompanied by one or more teachers. A considerable number of the Cleveland teachers were present. An address by the writer was followed by a class exercise in English History by Mrs. Adams of the Cleveland Central High School, formerly of Boston, Mass. This was a lecture designed to prepare the class for an intelligent and profitable preparation of the lesson. She narrated, in an admirable manner, the principal events in the reign of Edward III, and, by questioning the class, as she proceeded, fixed these in mind, and, at the same time, sketched an analysis of the lesson. This analysis the pupils are required to reproduce in writing and recite at the next recitation, giving such additional facts as they may obtain from their text-book and the other historical works which they may be able to consult. The lesson was followed by an explanation by Mr. Williams, the principal of the school, who stated that the method was designed to divorce the teaching from the text-book, and to create an interest in history and cultivate a taste for historical reading. The members of the class have free access to the reference books belonging to the school; also to the books in the public library of the city. A discussion on the value of history as a school study was participated in by Messrs. Henkle, Forbes, McMillan, Heywood, Higley, Rickoff, Harvey, and others. It was urged by Mr. Forbes that the study of history in school neither imparts a knowledge of the subject nor cultivates a taste for historical reading. It usually creates a dislike for history. Most of the speakers urged the importance of teaching history in the schools, but no one approved of the old memoriter method. It was generally conceded that the method presented by Mrs. Adams, would both impart a knowledge of history and create an interest in it. At the close of the exercises, Sup't Rickoff invited the members of the Association to a free dinner at the Weddell House.

COLUMBUS.—At the beginning of the current school year, the city was divided into three school districts, and a supervisory principal was appointed for each district, to act under the direction of the general superintendent. The "new departure" was not, however, fully taken, as a male principal was assigned to each of the three buildings in the third or German district. In the other two districts a lady principal was placed at the head of each grammar school, but with only a nominal control, if any, of the lower schools. The plan has so far worked well, the principal of each district being able to give quite as much personal attention to the discipline of the schools as was given under the former arrangement, while the supervision of the instruction is much more minute, systematic, and thorough. Each principal has some thirty-two teachers under his care, and, by giving his entire time to supervision, he is able to examine all the classes as often as once a month. The corps of teachers in the high school, which formerly consisted of three gentlemen and four ladies, now consists of four gentlemen and three ladies—a change not in the direction of the "new departure." The school is doing good work. Another item of interest connected with the opening of the schools, is the occupancy of the new building on State Street. This building, erected at a cost of about $75,000, is one of the finest in Ohio. It contains seventeen large school-rooms with modern conveniences, and a reception-room and an office. It is a great credit to the city. The

chool has been named the Sullivant School, in honor of Joseph Sullivant, Esq., for nany years a leading member of the board of education. The colored schools have een removed from the miserable alley rookeries, which have long disgraced the ity, to the commodious building on Long Street, repaired at an expense of some 7,000. This school has been called the Loving School, in honor of Dr. Loving, an ctive member of the board.——The number of pupils enrolled in all of the public chools of the city during the first month of the current year was 4,739, and the verage daily attendance was 4,330, notwithstanding one of the buildings was closed or several days. The whole number of teachers employed, not including the superintendent, is 104. We take pleasure in adding that Sup't Stevenson has made a romising beginning.

ZANESVILLE.—The published report of Sup't Wiles for the last school year is a brief and sensible document, showing on every page the hand of a practical educator. We learn from it that the whole number of enumerated youth in the city, Sept. 1870, was 4,232, and that the aggregate enrollment for the year was 2,231. It s estimated that as many as 600 children between the ages of six and seventeen, did not attend school any portion of the year. Mr. Wiles states that the regulation of he board forbidding any teacher to inflict corporal punishment except by special permission of the superintendent, "has tended to call forth and develop in the teachers ther and better resources, and they would not now return to the old *regime* if they ould." The order in the schools is believed to be quite as good as it was when the od was freely used; "and certainly the feeling between teachers and pupils is much etter."

WESTERN RESERVE COLLEGE.—Owing to his impaired health, Dr. Hitchcock resigned the presidency at the close of the last academic year, and Prof. Carroll Cutler was elected his successor. Dr. Hitchcock retains the chair of Christian Theology, the pastorate of the College Church, and the position of financial agent; and President Cutler retains the chairs of Intellectual Philosophy and Rhetoric. It is thus seen that these changes have not affected the instruction of the college. Prof. Barrows also resigned the chair of Latin and English Literature to take charge of the Congregational Church of Kent, and Prof. L. S. Potwin was elected his successor. He has made a good beginning, and the faculty is as strong as heretofore. When Prof. Seymour returns from Europe, the entire instruction of the college classes will be given by regular professors. One of the most important of recent changes in the course of instruction is in the department of physical science. Prof. Marley is filling this chair with great efficiency and acceptance. The apparatus has been greatly increased, and the laboratory has been rearranged and refitted. It is now one of the most convenient and complete in the country. Each student is supplied with a desk and apparatus with which he performs most of the experiments under the guidance of the professor. But we turn from these things to add a few merited words respecting the administration of President Hitchcock. When he accepted the presidency, the endowment fund was only about $60,000, and a debt of more than $30,000 rested upon the college. This debt has all been paid, and the endowment increased to about $130,000, not including $75,000 raised last year, most of which will be added to the endowment. The buildings have been thoroughly repaired, and the main one has been remodeled and modernized. The grounds have also been refenced and otherwise improved; and last, though not least, the President's salary has been increased to $2,000 and the Professors' to $1,500 each. This is not only financial success, but it has been achieved in the face of very great difficulties. His successor has been wisely selected, and the increasing prosperity of this thorough and worthy institution is assured.

THE CHICKERING INSTITUTE.—This institution, located at Cincinnati, O., is one of the best equipped and most thorough private schools in the West. Its special feature is the organization of two distinct departments, the classical and the scientific, each with its separate and complete course of study, covering a period of five years. The classical department affords a thorough preparation for the best colleges of the country, as the large number of students sent to Yale, Harvard, and other colleges of high grade, bear witness. The course of study embraces only what is required for admission to college, and hence the student is able to make full and thorough preparation without loss of time. The scientific course is fully equal to the course in the best high schools. It includes Latin or German or French in addition to the usual English branches. Not a few students take Latin and German or French. This course is a thorough preparation for the highest Scientific Schools of the country. A preparatory department is also connected with the Institute. It is now in charge of Miss Eunice M. Merriam, of the Oswego Normal School, who, for three years past, has been a leading teacher in the State Normal School at Potsdam, N.Y. Two of the former teachers in the classical department have been called to professorships—Henry P. Wright now being professor of Latin in Yale College, and Tracy Peck being professor of Latin in Cornell University. Thomas D. Biscoe, for several years a teacher in Amherst College and a scholar of good reputation, has been added to the former corps of teachers. The school has opened as usual with its full number of scholars—nearly 200.

SUMMIT COUNTY.—The annual institute, held in Akron the five days ending Sept. 1st, was in several respects the best institute which we have attended this year. T. W. Harvey, of Painesville, gave a very excellent course of instruction in English grammar and geography, and Sup't Findley, of Akron, presented the subject of arithmetic in a very satisfactory manner. His methods in the primary course were specially valuable. The other subjects presented were reading, spelling, and school government. A common excellence of the instruction was its systematic character. Each subject was methodically presented, and analyses or outlines of nearly all the lessons were written upon the blackboard. Friday was "Directors' Day", and a considerable number of school directors were present, several of whom participated in the discussions. The greater part of the day was devoted to the consideration of three questions, to wit: 1. What does the law require touching the qualifications, employment, and payment of teachers? 2. What authority should the board of edution concede to the teacher? 3. To what extent is the classification of country schools practicable? Notwithstanding the unfavorable weather on Monday and Tuesday, over 150 names were enrolled. One of the first institutes in Ohio was held in Akron, and Mr. Harvey was one of the instructors. He is a veteran in the good work.

INDIANA.—The Legislature, at its last session, enacted a new school law for cities of thirty thousand or more inhabitants, and the same may be adopted by any city of less population by a vote of the common council. The provisions of this law are somewhat liberal, and it is believed that the cities of the State will make more decided progress in public education. School taxes are levied by the board of education, and the maximum rate is *five* mills on the dollar. A library tax of one-fifth of a mill is also authorized.——The next annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association will be held in Indianapolis between Christmas and New Year.—— A large number of teachers' institutes will be held the present year, though the funds for their support are very small. The book-agents are again useful as instructors and lecturers. The Knox County Institute, held at Vincennes in August, was attended by about seventy teachers. It was conducted by A. W. Jones, the

efficient superintendent of the Vincennes public schools.——The September number of the *School Journal* contained Prof. Hoss's valedictory. He edited the magazine nine years, and left it in a prosperous condition.

INDIANAPOLIS.—The board of education finds it very difficult to furnish school accommodations for the increasing population of the city. The number of youth of school age is now 14,372, and several new buildings are greatly needed. The limit to taxation, fixed by law, makes it impossible to raise much more than $25,000 a year for building purposes, not including ordinary repairs. This sum is not sufficient to erect and furnish one good building annually. The board has just contracted for the erection of a building at a cost of $46,000, not including the furniture, and the available resources will erect one such building every two years.——The city training school has been reorganized, with a promise of increasing usefulness. It has heretofore prepared a goodly number of excellent primary teachers.——Sup't Shortridge has now a lady assistant, with a supervisory principal in each of the two districts of the city. This gives him three assistant superintendents, and he is improving upon his former excellent work.

WEST VIRGINIA.—The free school law of the State makes it the duty of boards of education to levy annually, "with the assent of the voters of the township", a tax for the support of primary free schools, but it does not prescribe the time or manner of obtaining such assent. Several Circuit Courts have decided that no assent need be formally obtained, as the election of the members of the board is sufficient. But the enemies of the school system have taken a new departure, and in several townships elections or meetings have been called, in an irregular manner, to forestall the action of the board by securing an expression adverse to the school levy. This dangerous movement has been met by a bold and liberal opinion by Hon. C. S. Lewis, General Superintendent. He holds that the decisions of the lower courts are law until they are reversed by higher judicial authority, and he advises boards to proceed to make the levy as heretofore. He also advises the friends of popular education to meet the issue boldly when elections are ordered, and by an active, vigorous canvass exhibit their full strength at the polls. We are very glad to note this praiseworthy effort to maintain the efficiency of the free-school system.——The Catholic question is now under discussion in Wheeling. It is the old demand for Catholic schools as a part of the public school system. We have not learned the result.

EASTERN STATES.

CONNECTICUT.—The State Legislature, at its last session, made an appropriation of $12,000 to the State Normal School. Of this sum about $3,000 have been expended in remodeling the interior of the building and for furniture and apparatus. The school-room has been supplied with modern furniture, and one of the two new recitation rooms has been provided with facilities for teaching the natural sciences. The school graduated a fine class of twenty-four at the close of the last school year, and the attendance this term promises increasing success. Mr. Carlton's management has given general satisfaction, and the school has never been stronger, if as strong, in public confidence. Connecticut is making good the words of Governor English, to wit, "The state demands a higher standard in her teachers."

NEW HAVEN.—The public schools of this city have made marked progress within a few years past, and are now among the very best in the country. They are well graded and classified, the course of instruction is systematic and thorough, and the attendance is large and regular. The schools are attended by Catholics as well as

Protestants. The city supports two Training Schools for the preparation of teachers; also a free Drawing School, and Evening schools. The salaries of the teachers were recently raised to the following figures: Principal of high school, $3,000; male assistant, $2,200; female assistants, $1,000 to $650; principals of grammar schools, $2,200; first assistant, $700; teachers in lower schools, $650 to $550. The lowest salary paid is $350, which is increased $50 a year to $550. The office of superintendent was first established, we believe, in 1865, and it has since been filled by Mr. Ariel Parish, an educator of large experience and success.

HARVARD COLLEGE.—The entire real estate of Harvard College is valued at $907,750.22; its notes and mortgages at $551,195.53; United States bonds at $222,493.80; other bonds at nearly $300,000; manufacturing stocks at $174,010; bank stock at $32,136. Its income from all sources last year was $212,588.34. There are some twenty funds for scholarships, and nearly as many more for other purposes in the academic department—many of them small in amount, but constantly increasing.—*N. Y. Tribune.*

CORNELL UNIVERSITY has an annual income of $125,000. A library building is being erected at a cost $160,000.

WESTERN STATES.

MINNESOTA.—The annual meeting of the State Teachers' Association was held in Normal Hall, Winona, Aug. 29th, 30th, and 31st. Addresses were delivered by C. H. Berry, Esq., of Winona; by Rev. Mr. McQuestion, of Le Sueur, on "The Study of Words"; by Prof. Charles Marsh, of Minneapolis, on "Vocal Music in Public Schools"; by Sanford Niles, of Olmsted, on "Normal Schools and Teachers' Institutes"; by Prof. E. J. Thompson, of the State University, on "Exaggeration"; by Hon. H. B. Wilson, State Superintendent, on "Uniformity of Statistics"; by Lieut.-Governor Yale on "Common Schools"; by Sup't W. O. Hiskey, of Minneapolis, on "Superintendency—its Place in a System of Public Instruction"; and by Hon. A. A. Harwood, President of the Association, who delivered the annual address. He strongly presented the importance of normal schools, and submitted a plan for the establishment of county normal schools, supported partly by the State and partly by local taxation. Compulsory Education and Private Schools were briefly discussed. We learn from the secretary's abstract of Mr. Berry's address, that the General Government has appropriated to Minnesota for school purposes 2,900,000 acres of land, not including the grant to the State University. The amount sold at the close of of 1869 was 362,110 acres, and the accumulated fund was $2,371,199. When the balance of her school lands are sold, Minnesota will have an immense school fund, the largest probably of any State in the Union. We add an illustration of the liberal school spirit of the people. The town of Rochester with only 800 pupils enrolled in its schools has a school building erected at a cost of $85,000. Five of the teachers are from the State Normal School at Winona, two from the Oswego Normal School, six from Boston, and one from Maine; and the salaries of these ladies are from $1,000 to $500 each. C. H. Roberts, formerly of Ohio, is the superintendent.—Minnesota has three well equipped State Normal Schools in successful operation The attendance of regular normal students last year was 452, and many graduates are in the schools of the State, demonstrating by their superior skill the value of their training. We recently saw the report of a committee appointed to examine the school at Winona. It is reported to be in excellent condition; "unqualified praise" is bestowed upon Prof. Phelps, the Principal, and the efficiency of the entire corps of teachers is strongly commended. The verdict of the committee respecting the building is, "We are proud of it"; and we will add that it is an honor to the State.

EBRASKA.—The fall term of the Nebraska State Normal School commenced gust 31st. One hundred and twenty students were enrolled. Hon. A. D. Wilns, former State Superintendent of West Virginia, a very efficient and successful ator, has been elected principal. Miss Emma Dickerman, a graduate of the ego Normal School is preceptress, and Miss Margaret Northway is principal of Model School. Valuable additions have been made to the library, apparatus, cabinet the past year; and the school is now in a very flourishing condition.—*Louis Jour. of Education.*

LIFORNIA.—As the work on the State Normal School building at San Jose ades, the rare beauty of the structure becomes more and more apparent. It atts the admiring gaze of every visitor to the "City of Gardens." When finished ill be an honor to California, and a pretty fair index of the rapid march of our e in education. The generosity of San Jose precludes the necessity of occupyany portion of the Normal School building until the whole is completed. One dred and thirty-six pupils have been in attendance during the term—a larger ber than have attended the school during any former summer term. The next ion of the school will begin October 16th.—*California Teacher.*

SOUTHERN STATES.

TLANTA UNIVERSITY.—We are indebted to Dr. H. S. Stout, of Atlanta, for the reof the Board of Visitors, appointed by Governor Bullock to visit and examine Atlanta University, an institution for colored youth, incorporated in 1867. The rt, which is signed by ex-Governor Brown and eight other leading citizens of nta, bears "won" and merited testimony to the ability and professional skill ie teachers and to the thorough training and admirable demeanor of the students. examination demonstrated the fallacy of the once prevalent idea that the Afrirace is not capable of a high grade of intellectual culture. The classes in algegeometry, Latin, and Greek exhibited a highly creditable degree of thoroughand culture. The committee speaks in deserved commendation of the moral ling to which the students are subjected, and also of the sanitary and general agement of the institution. We can bear personal testimony to the truthfulness justice of this report. When in Georgia last spring, we visited this institution, harge of Prof. E. A. Ware, and listened to excellent recitations in history, algeand Latin. We were greatly pleased with the bearing, spirit, and attainments he students. If there is a better school in Georgia, we would like to know its tion. We wish the South had a thousand such institutions to educate teachers he colored race and secure for it the blessings of a broad and thorough education.

ISK UNIVERSITY.—This institution, located at Nashville, Tenn., was founded by American Missionary Association and Western Freedmen Aid Commission in uary, 1866, and was chartered as a University in August, 1867. It has already mplished incalculable good, and a widening field of usefulness is before it. The ber of students in attendance last year was about four hundred and fifty, one dred of whom, representing ten different States, were boarders. Special attenis given to the education of teachers. College classes have been formed. Mr. rge L. White, treasurer of the institution and teacher of music, is now traveling a company of the students, giving concerts to aid the institution. These conare highly commended by the press.

—ARKANSAS has appropriated $50,000 for purchasing grounds and erecting dings for her Industrial University, leaving the 150,000 acres of public lands,

donated by Congress under the acts of 1862 and 1866, for a perpetual endowment fund; this, with county donations, gives a fund of over $300,000, to be invested for an income. With this munificent endowment and proper management, the University will soon rank among the first institutions of the kind in the United States.—The school revenues of the State for the year 1870 amount to $201,608. This fund has been apportioned to the several counties of the State on a basis of 183,280 children, making an average of $1.10 to each youth of legal school age.—*Miss. Educational Journal.*

LOUISIANA.—The administration of the Peabody Fund in Louisiana, seems to be attended with some difficulty. The whites absolutely refuse to send their children to the same schools with the colored, and practically the latter have alone enjoyed the benefits of the fund. It now appears that separate schools are to be maintained for the white children, on the ground that their prejudice, however unreasonable, should not debar them from the privileges of an education, as designed by Mr Peabody.—*R. I. Schoolmaster.*

BOOK NOTICES.

LAY SERMONS, ADDRESSES, AND REVIEWS. By THOMAS HENRY HUXLEY, LL.D., F.R.S. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

Prof. Huxley is now one of the famous men of Great Britain. He has especially distinguished himself in his special studies of Zoology, particularly of fossil reptilian remains. This volume before us, however, is largely foreign to the proper sphere of his life's work, and the addresses, therefore, possess none of the *authority* of a master. They contain his opinions and speculations, to be received or rejected as we may see fit. We make this remark by way of needed caution, since there is great danger, among the less careful readers, of regarding all the writings of a scientific man as of equal authority and value. It might be proof of ignorance or conceit for one to dispute Sir Isaac Newton's "Principia", but to doubt his interpretation of the Prophecies would prove nothing of the kind. So when Huxley discourses upon Liberal Education, or the Scientific Aspects of Positivism, or Descartes Right Use of Reason, and the like, his views have just the value his arguments give them, and no more. It would be well if Huxley himself recognized this distinction, and was less dogmatic and more modest. Huxley the Zoologist is a very able and learned man; while Huxley the Speculator on metaphysical and theological questions may be neither able nor learned.

Many of the addresses in this volume are excellent. They are all written with great vigor of style, and never fail to command attention. There is no mistaking what he means. His blows are direct and telling. He has no reverence. This is especially seen in his views of the English clergy. He says "they are divisible into three sections: an immense body who are ignorant and speak out; a small proportion who know and are silent; and a minute minority who know and speak according to their knowledge." He does not hesitate to speak plainly of his friends. "The army of liberal thought", he says, "is at present in very loose order; and many a spirited free thinker makes use of his freedom only to vent nonsense. We should be the better for a vigorous and watchful enemy to hammer us into cohesion and discipline; and I for one lament that the bench of Bishops can not show a man of the calibre of Butler of the "Analogy", who, if he were alive, would make short work of much of the current *apriori* infidelity." Many of the addresses and papers in this volume have been some years before the public, and have been subjected to frequent criticism and review. The discourse on the Physical Laws of Life, in which he calls

a vitalized combination of carbonic acid, water, and ammonia protaplasm, a substance from which all other life is derived, has excited no little discussion. The first and chief objection to his theory, viz., how came the combination vitalized, has never been met by Mr Huxley, and hence the chain of logic is without its first link attaching the whole to matter, and of course the theory, ingenious as it is, is a logical failure. One of the most valuable contributions to the volume is the address on Geological Contemporaneity and Persistent Types of Life. This is worthy of careful perusal. The same may be said of many others of the addresses. With the caution expressed at the outset of this notice ever in mind, no intelligent reader can fail to be greatly benefited by the perusal of these addresses, dogmatic and somewhat supercilious as they often are. E. B. A.

LESSONS IN LANGUAGE: An Introduction to the Study of English Grammar. By HIRAM HADLEY. Chicago: Hadley & Brothers. 1871.

This neat little book is the result of a praiseworthy effort to meet the demand for a practical manual of language lessons. The first twenty-four lessons train the pupil in the writing of sentences, including the correct use of the punctuation marks, capital letters, the sign of the possession, the abbreviations, etc. The next three lessons contain exercises in the writing of sentences containing certain words. Then follow sixteen lessons on objects—the descriptions being developed by means of object lessons; five lessons on compound sentences; twenty-five lessons on pictures; six lessons on the writing of the substance of brief stories and the changing of poetry to prose; twelve lessons on the writing of letters and business papers; several lessons on the writing of descriptions suggested by questions; lessons on proverbs, illustrations, etc. The method in the first series of lessons is (1) to present and examine a model; (2) to imitate it; (3) to construct like sentences. The fullest and best series are those on objects and pictures, the latter being admirable. While the course of instruction sketched does not fully meet our ideal, we can say heartily that we are much pleased with it. We earnestly wish that every elementary teacher in the country had its assistance. We fear that the plates were destroyed by the late terrible conflagration in Chicago, but we hope that the demand for the book will not only secure but will abundantly pay for its speedy republication.

NATURAL HISTORY OF ANIMALS: Containing Brief Descriptions of the Animals Figured on Tenney's Natural History Tablets, but Complete Without the Tablets. By SANBORN TENNEY and AUBREY A. TENNEY. Illustrated with Five Hundred Wood Engravings, chiefly of North American Animals. Seventh Edition. New York: Charles Scribnes & Co.

This volume presents the principal forms of animals with their classification into groups or branches, their distribution over the surface of the earth, etc. The descriptions of the principal classes in each group are commendably concise and simple. The more important scientific names are given, but each animal is introduced to the reader by its common or popular name. The interest of the American reader in the work is enhanced by the prominence given to North American animals. Teachers and parents, who wish to teach natural history to children orally, will find this work a valuable aid. It is printed in large and clear type, and the engravings are numerous and accurate, if we may judge from those representing animals which we have seen. The appendix contains a tabular classification of animals.

THE COUNTRY TEACHER. A Manual. By JONATHAN HUNT, Monroeville, Ohio.

This cheap manual of forty pages is designed to help young teachers in the instruction and government of country schools. It lacks method, but contains many practical hints and directions. Considerable atttention is given to primary instruction.

THE CHILD'S SPEAKER, being a Collection of Pieces for Recital in Primary Schools. By CHARLES NORTHEND, A.M. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co.

The author of this little book not only loves little children, but he knows what will please them. He has gathered the choicest gems of children's poetry and set them in prose selections as childlike as they are beautiful. We commend the book to every little pupil who wishes to find "a piece to speak."

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

WONDERS OF EUROPEAN ART. By LOUIS VIARDOT. Illustrated with Eleven Wood Engravings. Illustrated Library of Wonders. New York: Chas. Scribner & Co.

SCHOOL MANAGEMENT. By ALFRED HOLBROOK, Principal of National Normal School. 272 pp. 8mo. Lebanon, Ohio: Josiah Holbrook.

SARGENT & MAY'S NEW AMERICAN READERS. Comprising New American First Reader, New American Second Reader, New American Third Reader, New American Fourth Reader, and New American Fifth Reader. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

NEW EDUCATIONAL JOURNALS.

THE MONTHLY VISITOR. Jno. J. Morris and Wm. B. Rodman, Editors and Proprietors, Norfolk, Va. $1.50 a year.

PAMPHLETS AND ANNUAL REPORTS.

The Terrible Temptation. By Charles Reade.
The Lost Despatch. Translated from the German of Friedrich Friedrich by L. A. Williams.
"Behind the Veil". By the Author of "Six Months Hence".
—Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

Languages and Popular Education. Three Addresses by Magnus Gross. New York: E. Steiger.

Proceedings of the Georgia Teachers' Association, May, 1871. 68 pp.

Circular of Information of the Bureau of Education for July, 1871. Gen. John Eaton, National Commissioner of Education. 48 pp.

The Common School Laws of the State of Tennessee. W. Morrow, State Superintendent.

The Compulsory Use of the Bible in Schools. By H. L. Wayland, D.D.

The Education of the Women of the West. By H. L. Wayland, D.D.

New York City Schools, 1870. Henry Kiddle, Superintendent.

Public Schools of Providence, R. I., 1870–71. Daniel Leach, Superintendent.

Public Schools of Brooklyn, N. Y., 1870–71. J. W. Bulkley, Superintendent.

CATALOGUES.

Institution for the Improved Instruction of Deaf-Mutes, Albany, N. Y. F. A. Rising, Principal.

New York State Institution for the Blind, Batavia. A. D. Lord, Principal.

Orwell Normal Institute, Orwell, O. H. U. Johnson, Principal.

West Virginia State Normal School, West Liberty. F. H. Crago, Principal.

Northwestern Ohio Normal School, Ada. H. S. Lehr, Principal.

State Normal School, Warrensburg, Mo. George P. Beard, Principal.

Pennsylvania State Normal School, West Chester. E. H. Cook, Principal.

Pennsylvania State Normal School, Mansfield. Charles H. Verrill, Principal,

Pennsylvania State Normal School, Millersville. Edward Brooks, Principal.

Lebanon Valley College, Anville, Pa. Rev. Ezekiel Light, President.

THE

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E. E. WHITE, Editor.

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READING.

BY MISS D. A. LATHROP, CINCINNATI, O.

In the higher classes of our schools, the subject of reading, of all the lessons of the day, is fraught with most interest, and, to the teacher thoroughly baptized into the spirit of objective teaching, it presents the rarest opportunities for culture.

Every sentence of a well chosen selection is a word picture; but one which, very unfortunately, the pupil almost never sees, until its colors are retouched by the skillful teacher, and its unapprehended beauties revealed. The thing is utterly lost in the symbol, or the two have never been so associated that the one suggests the other. The teacher's business is to reëstablish this relation, to join what it is so essential should never be sundered. This work of association will proceed slowly at first, but it will abundantly reward his greatest painstaking, in the amount of thought awakened, of culture obtained, and of preparation for self-help from books secured. I am sure we take too much for granted in the reading lesson. If our pupils call the words glibly, and define here and there a difficult or unfamiliar one, we are too apt to assume that the whole is understood, when the fact is they have no accurate and sharply-lined conceptions of the facts stated. These can come only by thought, and our pupils do not think much. They lack close attention—concentration. The teacher can secure this—the greatest need of all children—in the reading lesson, if he knows how to do it. I

heard not long since a reading lesson conducted by an eminent teacher, a principal of a first-class private school, in a city that especially prides itself upon its superior educational facilities. This gentleman had traveled quite extensively in the old world. His class consisted of twenty-five young ladies—his pupils. The extract being read was a beautiful, spirited description of Scottish scenery. Each of the young ladies arose in her turn, and called off the words of her paragraph with no more conception of the spirit and grandeur of the scenes delineated in them, as far as I could judge by observing her manner, features, and voice, than the veriest infant, toying with the book-covers, might have.

The fault was not in the class. The pupils brought the ability and the willingness to be impressed. The bread should have been so blessed in the breaking as to have become "spirit and life" to them. The allowing such reading made me indignant at the teacher, but my indignation culminated in utter despair, when, the exercise finished, I had looked that he should say he had seen those very mountains and glens, forests and lakes, and so elucidate the author, to hear him say instead, "I observed Miss A. omitted the word 'the' in the second line of the tenth paragraph. The pause after 'and', fifteenth paragraph, fourth line, was not properly observed. The young ladies must try to read somewhat louder. That is sufficient." Then to me aside, "Our young ladies have a reading lesson once a week to cultivate a tast for solid reading, and to furnish a pleasant variety"! Just as if there was any culture in such a mechanical performance of school work! "Solid reading"! "solid" as that through which a ray of light at noon-day in midsummer does not pass, but in any educational purpose subserved as "light" as the airiest tissue.

A reading lesson with advanced pupils need never be dull, and, if it is so, the teacher is at fault, for its possibilities are almost limitless. Elocution, grammar, and rhetoric may be most effectively taught, in addition to the facts of the lesson itself. There is scarcely a lesson but contains allusions to events of history or facts of science, the tracing out of which furnishes excellent mental exercise.

All teachers know that comparatively few pupils know how to make dictionaries, encyclopedias, and miscellaneous books of reference serve them in giving information upon a given point. What they desire to find may be at hand, but they, possessing neither the affinities of the plant, nor the instincts of the beast

must be taught where to look among and how to select from the great mass of facts before them just what is to their purpose. When we have put them in the way to search out matters for themselves, and to reduce to order, to correlate, so to speak, the information derived from different sources, bearing upon the same point, we have done for them an invaluable work. This result can be obtained only *in doing*, and there is no school exercise that affords so good an opportunity for this kind of culture as the reading lesson. Here it never seems forced because it is essential to the development of the ideas, and never becomes monotonous because the allusions are so various.

If reading exercises were conducted as they may be, the time spent upon them in the high school, and college even, would be more profitably spent than much that is now given to other subjects. They should be made to develop analytic power. It would not be a difficult matter so to train a class in our upper grades that its members could tabulate the ideas of the selections given them for study. And how valuable the power to seize upon the leading thoughts of an author and to put them in logical order will be to any young person in after life.

It would require but little care on the part of the teacher so to indicate the characteristics of style in English composition that the pupils would become something of critics in this regard. A little attention would open to them the vast wealth of figurative language with which our literature abounds. Few of our pupils have ever thought of the beauty of individual words. The history of a few striking ones studied out would lead to another source of pleasure and culture.

The teacher by a skillful use of the reading lesson can lead the pupils to appreciate what is really excellent in literature, and so cultivate their taste. One standard exercise critically studied, first for its thoughts, and then for their expression, will do more in this direction than many of us suppose.

It seems to me that wise teachers may do much towards correcting the deplorable tendency now existing toward frivolous and sensational literature. Could not a teacher of tact and of influence with his pupils so interest them in an author, or a subject, as that they should want to know more of him or of it? And, when once they become interested, how easy it would be to guide them to desirable books, each one getting from his reading just what the teacher could make use of and build into the educational fabric he is trying to rear day by day in school. It often

happens now that the progress of children in school is impeded by so much ill-digested reading out of school. If the teacher would give direction to the reading outside, by making it an outgrowth of school work, what an assistance it might be made to him. This I suppose to have been the idea of our district school libraries kept at the school-houses, under charge of the teachers. But they have fallen into disrepute because teachers have not known how to make use of them.

In no lesson, as I have hinted, are pupils so dependent, at first, as in the reading lesson. Few of them, having called the words, will unaided reach back for the ideas. But the teacher, by his methods, should try to render himself unnecessary, as soon as possible. This can not be done in a day. But by patient conscientious effort continued through many days, pupils can be aroused to the conviction that words really represent ideas; and their ambition can be stirred to search out these ideas independently; and their pride can be quickened to an effort to express them with rhetorical effect.

METHODS OF TEACHING FOR DISTRICT SCHOOLS.

SECONDARY SERIES.—No. III. ARITHMETIC.

BY WM. F. PHELPS, WINONA, MINN.

Sketch of a Lesson in Multiplication.

Point: To teach analysis of examples in which the multiplier is a decimal.

Example: Multiply 246.3 by .5. If we recall to mind principle third in multiplication, we shall find that "if the denomination of the multiplier be units, the product must be of the same denomination as the multiplicand." Let this principle be made familiar to the class. If we multiply 246.3 by 5 units what will be the denomination of the product? Write the example on the blackboard, and proceed to multiply by the 5 units, giving the denomination of each partial product. Thus: 5 times 5 tenths are 25 tenths, equal to 5 tenths and 2 units. Write the 5 tenths in the place of tenths, and add the 2 units to the product of units; 5 times 6 units are 30 units and 2 units added are 32 units, equal to 2 units and 3 tens. Write the 2 units in the place

of units, and add the 3 tens to the product of tens. In this manner multiply each digit of the multiplicand by the multiplier, naming the denomination of each partial product, and you will find the total product to be 1231.5, the denomination being the same as that of the multiplicand.

The class now compares 5 units with 5 tenths, and each pupil observes that 5. is 10 times as great as .5. They also notice and state that they have used a multiplier 10 times too great; therefore the product is 10 times too great. By questioning the teacher leads the class to correct this error by moving the decimal point one place farther to the left, and the product becomes 123.15.

The class may now be led to multiply directly by tenths. Thus: .5 times .3 is .15, equal to 5 hundredths and 1 tenth. Write the 5 hundredths in the place of hundredths, and add the tenth to the product of tenths. Again, .5 times 6. is 30 tenths and 1 tenth added is 31 tenths, equal to 3 units and 1 tenth. Write the 1 tenth in the place of tenths, and add the 3 units to the product of units. In a similar manner the class may, by judicious questioning and illustration, be led to multiply by hundredths, thousandths, etc., observing and naming the denominations produced in each case.

From numerous examples of this kind, the pupils will be able to discover the *principles* which govern operations in the multiplication of decimals, and hence can give a *reason* for the otherwise arbitrary rule that in multiplying as many figures must be pointed off for decimals in the product as are equal to the number of decimal places in both factors.

Or, if this course be deemed too difficult for the secondary grade, the following final analysis may be made: Multiplying 246.3 by 5 units, the product is 1231.5. But since this multiplier is 10 times too great, the product is 10 times too great, and it is corrected by moving the decimal point one place farther to the left, when the product is, as above, 123.15. The same reasoning may be used when the multiplier is hundredths, thousandths, etc.

Such questions as these may be asked: What is the denomination of the product as a whole? Answer: It is hundredths. Why? Because since the denomination of the multiplier is 10 times less than units, the denomination of the product must be ten times less than that of the multiplicand. How many decimal places are there in the product? Why? Because tenths multiplied by tenths produce hundredths, and to express hun-

dredths requires two places. How many decimal places are required to express thousandths? ten thousandths? etc. To express tenths requires how many places? Hundredths? Thousandths? etc.

Division.

Point: To teach analysis of examples in which the divisor is a decimal.

Example: Take 235.005 and divide it by .05. Recall and illustrate principle fifth in division: If the denomination of the divisor be units, the quotient must be of the same denomination as the dividend. Teacher questions class: If we divide by 5 units what will be the denomination of the quotient? Ans. Thousandths. Proceed to divide by 5 units step by step. The result is 47.001. The teacher now leads the class to compare 5 units with .05. The pupils learn that 5. is 100 times as great as .05, and therefore the divisor used is 100 times too great. Hence the quotient is 100 times too small. The class is led to correct the error by moving the decimal point two places to the right, when the quotient becomes 4700.1.

Analysis: Dividing the given dividend by 5, the quotient is 47.001. But since this divisor is 100 times too great, the quotient is 100 times too small, and it is corrected by removing the decimal point two places to the right, and the true quotient is 4700.1.

Numerous questions like the following should be asked: What is the denomination of the quotient? It is tenths. Why? Because since the denomination of the divisor is 100 times less than units, the denomination of the quotient must be 100 times as great as that of the dividend. How many decimal places are there in the quotient? One. Why? Because thousandths divided by hundredths will give tenths for a quotient, and tenths require one place to express them. Suppose we divide tenths by tenths what will be the quotient? Units. Tenths by hundredths? Tens. Hundredths by tenths? Tenths, etc.

The method here proposed is no "new fangled notion." It is not mere theory. It is the result of a long course of practice, and it has been far more successful than the absurd plan of teaching decimals as though they were common fractions, and apart from their relations to integral numbers.

In conclusion, this method is suggested as being one of the best, if not the only one, whereby the *principles of decimals* may become thoroughly understood, and their practical application be made certain and easy.

SPELLING AS AN EDUCATOR—EXAMPLES.—V.

BY W. WATKINS.

The reader must bear in mind that spoken language, as a means of communication, is greatly superior to written language. That which upon paper looks dull, dry, and difficult, becomes in the mouth of a good speaker lively, interesting, and plain. The printed page may be made to reflect the clear, cold light of thought, but the real presence of the good teacher glows with the genial warmth of human feeling. Like the sun, he sheds abroad both light and heat.

Manner is everything in teaching, and is just what we can not show on paper. We can, however, show a current of thought. Let us suppose we wish to point our spelling in the direction of geometry; to call attention to the circle and to the fact that the word round is not fit for scientific uses on account of indefiniteness, and to show the necessity of other more definite terms, and especially of the words circle and circular.

EXAMPLE I.

Spelling! Slates! School in order! (That is, erect in straight rows, faces to the front.) I shall draw something for you. Watch me and see how I do it. I hold one end of this string fast to the board with one finger; I fasten a crayon to the other end, and then draw the line, thus. You see that I have inclosed a part of the surface of the board by this line. This is a *figure.* You may write the word as the first of our lesson. There are many kinds of figures. Here are two others. (Drawing a square and a triangle.) These figures are not of the same kind as the first one. Can you tell me why? *The last two are made of straight lines; the first is not.* You mean right, but we do not say figures are *made* of lines, but *bounded* by lines. You may write bounded for our second word. What kind of lines bound the last two figures? *Straight lines.* Yes; write those words.

Now we do not need these two figures any more, so we will rub them out, and leave only the first one. Is this figure bounded by straight lines? *No; by a crooked line.* No; that is not the word. The limbs of trees grow crooked, and boys make crooked marks when they begin to learn writing, but this is not a crooked line. JAMES: *It is a curved line.* Yes, very good: write. Did you ever look down the railroad and see that in some places the

rails run in straight lines as far as you can see, and in other places the track turns off to one side or the other? What do you call such a place? *A curve.* Yes, a curved line is called a curve, which is easier to say. Write *curve.* By what is this figure bounded? *By a curve.*

Now what would you say of the shape of this figure? *It is round.* Write round. What is this? *A cent.* Write cent. What is this? *The stove-pipe.* Write the word. What is the shape of the stove-pipe? *Round.* What is this? *A globe.* Write. What shape? *Round.* Are the cent, the pipe, and the ball of the same shape? *No.* That is funny; you tell me that they are not of the same shape, and yet each is round. What is the matter? The word round means too much. It is like the boy that was Jack of all trades and master of none. We must have a word for each kind of roundness. Can any one tell the name of this figure? *It is a circle.* Yes; write the word.

When we look at the side of a cent we see a circle, so we say the cent is *circular* in shape. Write this word. Tell me some thing that is circular? *A wagon-wheel, a hoop, a button, a dial of a clock.* HERMAN: *My father works with a circular saw.* Yes, saws are sometimes made in the shape of a circle, with notches cut in it for teeth. SAMUEL: *I saw a circular window.* Yes. write all these words. Now let us read our spelling lesson:

1 figure	6 round	10 circle	14 button
2 bounded	7 cent	11 circular	15 dial
3 straight lines	8 stove-pipe	12 wagon wheel	16 saw
4 curved line	9 globe	13 hoop	17 window
5 curve			

These are good words: we will have Jenny write them plainly on the board so that we can correct our spelling.

EXAMPLE II.

Pursuing the same subject, by means of questions and additional lines drawn in our circle, we may find the words:

1 center	5 circumference	9 radii	13 cord
2 curve	6 diameter	10 arch	14 chord
3 equally distant	7 equal length	11 arc	15 tangent
4 equidistant	8 radius	12 bow	16 secant

By such means we seek to give the pupil perceptions which in the later years of school life will serve as the foundations of true culture. That these ideas will often be crude and erroneous does not annoy us, for we remember the crudity and ignorance of childhood. It is only after repeated observations that the true location of any fact can be ascertained.

EXAMPLE III.

We may turn our spelling toward anatomy by naming and luding to the uses of the different parts of the human body, as:

1 head	7 eye	13 pupil	19 cheek	25 incisors
2 hair	8 eyeball	14 iris	20 lip	26 eye-tooth
3 scalp	9 eyelid	15 cornea	21 chin	27 canine
4 crown	10 eyelash	16 nose	22 jaw	28 grinders
5 skull	11 eyebrow	17 nostril	23 tooth	29 molars
6 face	12 pupil	18 bridge	24 teeth	30 gums

These words are easy and adapted to an earlier age than those the former examples. Who can estimate the advantage of king these words in their connection, so that they are seen to present parts of one whole. When the ordinary names of the ırts of the body are thus taught, we may teach the names of e bones in like manner.

EXAMPLE IV.

Water is found in—

1 puddles	6 sloughs	11 rivers	16 seas
2 ponds	7 lagoons	12 creeks	17 gulfs
3 lakes	8 bayous	13 rivulets	18 bays
4 marshes	9 billy-bongs	14 rills	19 estuaries
5 swamps	10 pools	15 oceans	30 friths

How many of the essential ideas of geography are here!

EXAMPLE V.

How can we teach geology till the pupil understands such ›rds as these:

1 earth	6 drift	11 stratum	16 petrifaction
2 soil	7 alluvial	12 strata	17 aqueous
3 clay	8 rock	13 stratified	18 igneous
4 loam	9 stone	14 unstratified	19 metamorphic
5 sand	10 layers	15 petrify	20 fossil

By these examples we are trying to show how some of the ›st essential ideas of each science may be brought before the nd of the pupil indirectly, and under circumstances most ·orable to their passing into his mind, and becoming a "part his being beyond his control."

We propose nothing more than to make spelling instructive by ıking it of collateral assistance to us in our other labors. Geom-ɜrs can only be made by long and patient study in riper years, t that is no reason why we should not call the child's atten-›n to certain figures and their properties. The truth is, that ɜ need to have this knowledge of figures years before we are ·led upon to use it in reasoning.

CONCLUSION.

In this series of papers we have argued: That spelling should be taught in writing. That the natural order is, first the idea, then the spoken word, then its written form. That it is of the first importance that the pupil be taught to spell those words which form his own vocabulary. That this being done we may form the habit of learning the spelling of new words as we learn the use of it. Lastly, that the instruction in spelling may be made of assistance in the education of the pupil in any direction.

Middletown, Ohio.

OBJECT TEACHING: A SUCCESSFUL MEANS FOR ATTAINING THE BEST RESULTS IN EDUCATION.

BY N. A. CALKINS,*

A systematic plan for using various objects as a means for training the several senses of children in habits of ready and accurate perception, without aiming to give instruction upon any particular subject, may be called *object teaching* in an introductory stage. This is appropriate for the first term of the child's school life.

During the next stage, objects may be employed as a means of instruction in given subjects, at the same time keeping prominently in view a proper discipline of the pupil's mind. The first step with each lesson, in this second stage, is a preparation of the pupils for receiving instruction relative to the subject of the lesson. In making this preparation the teachers should commence with something that is already familiar to the child, and which is more or less directly related to the matter of the lesson. When the teacher has ascertained what is definitely known, and what partly known concerning the subject, she can readily proceed from the well known to the faintly known, and thence to the chief matter of the lesson. During this procedure objects are used to enable the pupils to employ the greatest number of their senses in acquiring ideas of the subjects under consideration. Special care is also taken to associate the additional knowledge acquired during each succeeding lesson with that which has been previously learned.

* Superintendent of Primary Schools, New York City.

Again, that process of teaching which employs an object, or a ;ven quality of one, as the subject of the lesson, and proceeds rst to develop in the minds of the pupils definite ideas relative) the subject, and to give the language necessary to properly mbolize those ideas so soon as their minds are prepared to re- ;ive it, may be called *object teaching.*

Object teaching places the knowledge of *things* before *names,* the order of instruction. It illustrates by examples before ving rules. It also leads to a classification and association of ndred ideas and facts.

An *object lesson* may be defined as a *method of instruction* rela- ve to a given object, the object being the *subject* of the lesson.

Object *teaching* signifies a particular *system of using objects* and *treating subjects* in the processes of instruction. It is the *man- r* and *purpose of using objects* and the *mode of treating subjects* hich chiefly determine whether a given mode of instruction ay be called object teaching.

It is a well-known fact that the mind is endowed with powers acquiring knowledge; that this power is early manifested rough the organs of sense, by means of which the elements of r knowledge of the material world are obtained. Even the nsciousness which we have of our own minds and the informa-)n we possess of the mind's power becomes more complete and vid by knowing the things around us. The amount of informa-)n which the mind may acquire, from all sources, depends, to a eater or less extent, upon the clearness of the ideas that are rived through the exercise of the senses. Knowledge thus tained penetrates the intellect more deeply and pervades it)re completely than any other, for it is the impression which ture herself makes upon the mind by direct contact. If the ief gateways of knowledge—the senses—be but partially ened, the elements of ideas must pass through them with diffi- lty, and often become distorted by the passage; but with these ors and windows to the mind wide open, the obstacles to owledge are readily overcome, as clearness of perception leads completeness of knowledge.

The pupil's habits of learning are chiefly formed by the pro- s of instruction employed by the teacher. The foundation of)d habits must be laid in childhood. If a child be early trained habits of accurate observation of the various properties of atever it sees in the common things around it, it will have a

permanent guarantee for the successful acquisition of knowledge during after years.

We can not add a new power or faculty to the mind by any process of teaching, nor change the natural mode of its development; but we can surround it with influences adapted to awaken its slumbering energies, and thus increase its power of action.

The *manner of learning*, as well as the facts acquired, develops the mind, and gives it habits that influence all its subsequent attainments in knowledge. It becomes, therefore, a matter of no small moment what methods of instruction shall be employed as the means of education, since upon these must depend, to a great extent, the habits of learning that will influence all the future career of the pupil.

The principles of object teaching require that children shall first be trained to use their several senses with facility and observe with accuracy; also, that they shall be taught to compare objects, and classify like things and facts, and to describe intelligently what they observe around them. Furthermore, in the processes of giving instruction during the early stages of education in the various subjects of school study, the rudiments of each subject should be presented before books relating to those subjects are placed in their hands; and these elementary steps of instruction should prepare the way for and lead to an intelligent use of text-books.

Children generally make great progress in the use of their senses, in the development of their faculties, in learning facts from surrounding objects, and in strengthening their physical powers before they enter school; and it is the first duty of the teacher to ascertain to what extent this progress has been made, then so to employ the appropriate means as to continue the pupil's advancement in knowledge in accordance with the same laws of nature which controlled the process of learning before the child came under the influence of school. For the accomplishment of these aims, suitable exercises should be provided whereby the undeveloped powers of the pupils—all their defects of hearing, seeing, speech, etc., shall be so far removed as the circumstances of the case will allow.

True object teaching leads the child to *use its powers for perceiving*, trains it *to know from observing*, and to *accumulate knowledge* by classifying like objects, facts, and experiences, and associating them with things to which they chiefly relate.

The years of school life should be devoted chiefly to training

the powers of mind and body in such *habits* of observing, thinking, doing, and learning, as will lead to completely developed men and women. This important end may be attained by suitable attention to the prominent characteristics of childhood in choosing the means for the acquisition of knowledge. Such is the aim in true object teaching.—*N. Y. School Journal.*

GEOGRAPHICAL NOTES.

BY PROF. RUSH EMERY.

1. UNITED ITALY. The withdrawal of the French troops from Rome in September of last year, removed the only remaining obstruction to the unification of Italy. The territory under the temporal jurisdiction of the Pope at the time of uniting, comprised but 4,552 square miles, having a population in 1863 of 723,121. The present area of Italy is 114,296 square miles; its population in 1868, previous to the union, was 25,527,915, giving 26¼ millions as a near approximation to its present population. Italy is yet the smallest, in area and numbers, of the prominent European powers.

2. GERMAN EXPLORATIONS IN GREENLAND. During the second German Arctic Expedition, an immense fiord was discovered upon the eastern coast of Greenland in latitude 73°. It was explored for a distance of eighty miles, at which point its breadth was more than five miles, and its depth exceeded 3,000 feet. It may be fairly assumed that a channel of such dimensions must have a very extended course, and that the "Francis Joseph Fiord", as it was named by its discoverers, must extend far into the interior of Greenland. The outlets of a number of fiords were observed during the expedition named; and their frequency and probable extent lend no small degree of probability to the theory, that Greenland partakes largely of the character of an archipelago; that it is a system of islands separated from each other by fiords. Mountains 14,000 feet high were seen towards the interior.

3. ARCTIC EXPLORATIONS DURING 1871. 1. The American Expedition under Capt. Hall, the plan and object being well known to American readers. 2. A new Swedish expedition sailed in

May for West Greenland, having as its object the completion of investigations previously commenced by Swedes, especially in the department of *deep-sea soundings*—a subject which now seems to be attracting much attention, and which promises to yield many valuable results. The expedition also proposes to bring home an immense meteorite, twelve feet long, and five feet high, discovered by a former expedition. It is proposed to establish a Swedish colony upon Spitzbergen mainly for scientific purposes, as the taking of meteorological and magnetic observations, and also to serve as the starting point of a sledge expedition to the North Pole in 1872. 3. A new German expedition has specially in view the exploration of "Gillis' Land" and "King Charles' Land"—two islands believed to lie between Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla, but the location of which has not as yet been accurately determined. 4. An expedition from Dundee sailed for East Greenland; and in case of failure to reach the coast, the design was to attempt the exploration of "King Charles' Land." 5. Octave Pavy, a French-American, proposes to reach the North Pole *via* Behring Strait, making Wrangel Land the real starting point of his sledges. 6. Besides those already named, quite a number of Norwegian vessels are engaged in making Arctic explorations. Some of these are mainly intended as hunting and fishing expeditions, scientific investigations being a secondary object.

4. WATER-FALL IN BRITISH GUIANA. The Potaro, a tributary of the Essequibo, falls in an unbroken sheet to a depth of 741 feet. The breadth of the river above the falls is 370 feet at high water.

5. THE NEW GERMAN EMPIRE has a population, according to the census of 1867, of 40,150,000. Russia alone, of all the European powers, exceeds Germany in the number of inhabitants. France falls below it by three and a half millions. With regard to area, the relative rank of the great powers is, Russia, Austria, Germany, France, Great Britain, Italy.

6. METEOROLOGICAL OBSERVATIONS AT LIMA, S. A. The idea is quite common, that rain is entirely unknown on the narrow strip of Peruvian coast lying west of the Andes. Observations made at Lima, three times daily, during the entire year 1869, show that in the months of May, June, July, August, September, October, November, and December, there fell respectively 7, 41, 46, 42, 39, 36, 12, and 2 millimeters of rain. (25.4 millime-

equal one inch). No rain fell during the remainder of the
There were 136 entirely cloudy days, and 42 wholly clear
in the year, none of the latter occurring from June to
ber inclusive.
ma, N. Y., Nov. 1871

GRADED NORMAL SCHOOLS.

BY A. S. KISSELL.*

e district schools and lower departments of our graded sys-
all into requisition the greater portion of the teaching force
e State. The great majority of the children, where the ad-
ages of the graded system are accessible, stop short of the
school and complete their education in the primary and in-
ediate departments. The immense school interest, moreover,
e rural districts, which is so organized as to supply a school-
e at a convenient distance for every farmer's child through-
he one hundred counties that constitute the State, claims our
al attention as furnishing, for the most part, all the educa-
that the great body of our people ever secure. These
ols of elementary instruction are the colleges for the people,
n them nineteen-twentieths of all the teachers of the State
employed. The studies pursued in these schools embrace
more than the branches required by law to be taught, and
preparation of the teacher therefore should have special
ence to the management of schools of this grade, and im-
ng instruction in the elementary branches.
is deemed feasible, therefore, to inaugurate a system of
ed normal schools. The subject has been broached by the
onal Teachers' Association of 1870, and is a scheme upon
h there is pretty general unanimity among all the leading
ators of the land. Two very strong papers, urging the
sity and detailing the advantages of such a plan, were sub-
d at the National Teachers' Association, and were deemed
mely and suggestive with reference to this most pressing
lem, that the Commissioner of Education has incorporated
entire in his report for 1870. So thoroughly has the sub-

* State Superintendent of Public Instruction of Iowa.

ject been canvassed in these two papers, and the advantages and practicability of the plan so clearly and judiciously set forth that I can not do better than commend the careful reading of them to all those who are in any way interested in the movement. Meantime it is proper in this connection to state briefly the considerations favoring the plan.

First. If the plan were consummated, all the normal schools that would be established in the State, with the exception of some central normal school, would possess the character and curriculum of primary normal schools. These would be preparatory and tributary to the central normal school, the grade of the latter answering to the higher department of our graded school system, and preparing teachers more expressly for these; whereas the organization and course of studies in the former would prepare teachers for the mixed schools of our rural districts and the lower departments of our graded school system.

Second. As these primary normal schools are intended to meet the want of the great mass of the teaching force in the State, they will be so placed and so organized that the poorest district school teacher in the country will have no difficulty in getting to them. The design is to bring the advantages of professional training within easy reach of every teacher in the State, and so accommodate him as to the distance he will have to go, and the time he will be obliged to remain, that a large average of those entering the business will get the benefit of more or less normal drill. The building and grounds should be provided by the community in which the school is located, and the matter of location could be safely entrusted to the competitive bids of different towns and cities within the State. * * *

Third. The aim should be to have these schools as sparingly academic as possible in the character of the instruction they impart, and the curriculum almost wholly confined to methods of instruction in the ordinary branches of a common school education. This will render it possible to classify the students in attendance, whatever may be their numbers, in a few uniform grades, and enable three or four skillful men and women to take the entire charge of the instruction and training in their hands. The management of these institutions will fall readily under the supervision of a few well-selected teachers, because, as it is a regime of training through which the students are severally passing, it will even be a part of the routine to enlist in exercises of instruction the more advanced talent that the system

may develop. Estimating an annual salary of $6,000 for the professors engaged permanently in this work, the State need not be at a greater expense than about $36,000 per annum for the teaching force employed in these institutions. If additional force should be needed, there are various ways in which it might be secured without expense to the State. * * *

I need not enlarge on the subordinate features of this plan. The manner in which the system may be best organized in detail, the means that must be adopted for its support, the precise capacity and limits it must have, are subjects which will readily take shape under the investigations and discussions of legislators experienced in these matters, and having the interest of our school system at heart. I have aimed simply to demonstrate the necessity and practicability of a scheme of graded normal schools, and to remove what is likely to be considered the most formidable barrier in the way of their establishment—the item of expense.

So urgent and pressing is the demand for normal training at this time, that I can not see how action can be longer postponed on the subject, without irreparable damage to the school interests of the State. The plan I suggest will perhaps appear to many as too modest and unpretending in its character, and as a scheme to take hold too tenderly of a work of unmanageable magnitude. With reference to this, it will suffice to say that the largest wisdom the world ever displays, in times when it is manifestly and indisputably wise, is when it consents deliberately and heartily to do what it can. It is simply recommended that a beginning be now made toward the ultimate establishment of a system of primary normal schools which shall be conveniently distributed over the State.—*Annual Report.*

CASES IN GRAMMAR.

Nouns and pronouns in English propositions hold various relations to other words. Some teach that these relations are cases.

What is involved in this doctrine?

1. An indefinite number of cases. For the number of cases will at least equal the number of relations. We must have a subjective case, an attributive case, an appositive case, a possessive case, a verb-objective case, a preposition-objective case, and,

if *no* relation be a relation, an independent case. It seems to be universally admitted that prepositions are relation-words, and that they commonly express relations of nouns and pronouns. According to the doctrine under discussion, these relations are cases. It therefore follows (since no two prepositions express the same relation) that, in addition to those enumerated above, we must have at least as many cases as there are prepositions. But a single preposition may express more than one relation. For illustration, the word *with* in the following examples: "David went *with* Jonathan", and "David slew the giant *with* a stone from his sling." This fact would render necessary a still farther increase of the number of cases.

To what has been said with reference to prepositions, it is some times objected, that nouns and pronouns following prepositions hold a common relation to the prepositions. This may be granted; indeed, it must be. But the objection is not pertinent, since the relation of the words *to* the preposition is not the relation expressed *by* the preposition.

2. This doctrine of cases would require us to make an equal number of cases in different languages, in so far as nouns and pronouns in these languages hold corresponding relations. The same would be true of adjectives and participles. It would be impossible to justify the making of five or six cases in Latin and Greek, and only three or four in English.

3. With this doctine, our rule for forming the possessive is absurd. The common statement is, "To form the Possessive (singular), add the apostrophe and the letter *s* to the nominative." Of which the interpretation must be, "To form the possessive *relation*, add an *apostrophe* and an *s* to the nominative *relation*"! Let any one who would fully realize the absurdity of the thing, attempt to make such a combination as the rule prescribes.

4. We find equal difficulty with our rules for construction. Consider, for example, the rule which says, "A noun used as the object of a verb, must be in the objective case." The interpretation will be, "A noun in the *objective relation* (to a verb) must be in the *objective relation*." Certainly. The proposition is as clear as that "an animal is an animal", or that "a boy in an awkward predicament must be in an awkward predicament", and as true; but is it not an abuse of language to dignify such an idle statement by calling it a *rule?*

5. In the expressions, "*He* discovered a planet" and "*Him* discovered a planet", the pronouns hold precisely the same rela-

tion. So in the expressions, William discovered *we*" and "William discovered *us*." If *cases* = *relations*, the words *he* and *him* are in the same case. Likewise the words *we* and *us*. It therefore appears that, so far as the cases of the pronouns are concerned, the constructions are equally correct, equally in accordance with the rule. A moment's thought will make it clear, that, under this doctrine, it is impossible to make incorrect constructions of nouns or pronouns. If it is impossible for us to err in our constructions, it is clearly useless to have rules for our guidance.

These are some of the most important consequences involved in the doctrine that relations are cases. My readers can easily pursue the subject further without my aid. J. G. S.

THE ORAL AND THE TEXT-BOOK METHOD.

BY W. T. HARRIS.*

What is the difference between the oral and so-called text-book method, and what are the merits and defects of each?

In the former, the oral method, the teacher is the general source of information; in the latter, or text-book method, the pupil is sent to the book for information. In neither of these methods is a cramming of the memory with mere words considered to be good teaching, and yet it may happen under a poor teacher, whether the oral or text-book method is used.

The excellence of the oral method should be its freedom from stiffness and pedantry, and its drawing out of the pupil to self-activity in a natural manner. Its abuse happens when, in the hands of a poor teacher, the subject is presented in a confused manner, or scientific precision is lost by using too familiar language, or by too much pouring into the pupil without enough exercising the pupil by making him do the reciting and explaining.

The excellence of the text-book method consists in getting the pupil to work instead of working for him; in teaching him how to study for himself, and to overcome difficulties by himself, instead of solving them for him. Unless the teacher knows this, and directs all his efforts to achieve this end, very great abuses

* Superintendent of the Public Schools of St. Louis.

creep in. Thus it may happen that the teacher requires the pupil merely to memorize the words of the book, and does not insist upon any clear understanding of it. Indolent teachers lean upon the text-book, and neglect to perform their own part in the recitation.

But in the hands of the good teacher the text-book is a powerful instrument to secure industry, precision, accuracy, and self-help on the part of the pupil. In conducting a recitation, the teacher should—

1st. See that its main point is brought out, explained, and illustrated again and again by the different pupils, each using his own language, and the using of the language of the book discouraged, in so far as it tends to verbatim or parrot-like recitations.

2d. The teacher should himself criticise and call upon his pupils to criticise the defects in the statements made by each pupil, so that they shall acquire a habit of alertness in noticing inaccuracy as well as lack of exhaustiveness in definition, whether in oral statements or in the text-book itself.

3d. The lesson should in all cases be brought home to the pupil's own experience, and his own observation and reflection made to verify the statements of the books.

4th. Every recitation should connect the lesson of to-day to the lessons already recited, and the questions awakened in to-day's lesson should be skillfully managed to arouse interest in the subject of to-morrow's lesson.

5th. The good teacher always notes by the recitation of a pupil what are his habits of study, and the recitation is the place where bad habits are pointed out, and the true method of study shown and illustrated.

I think all will agree with me in pronouncing the recitation conducted in the manner here described effective in securing the ends for which you have established the rules and regulations governing the teachers in the public schools. I have now to point out an additional regulation, which, if adopted by your honorable body, will, I think, lead to the correction of some of the abuses more or less prevalent among the teachers of the schools. I refer to the practice of some of our teachers of using the text-book during the recitation as a source of information from which to draw a supply for their own use on the occasion, thus making up for their own lack of preparation. From this practice results the greater bulk of the evils complained of by intelligent parents

who find their children becoming mere cramming machines, instead of intelligent investigators. That the teacher should know at least as much of the lesson as the pupil, does not need statement. Why, then, should the teacher have recourse to the text while the pupil is debarred from it? In consideration of the evils arising from this source, I respectfully suggest the adoption of a regulation prohibiting to the teacher the use of the text-book in the recitation whenever the pupil is expected to recite without the book; and that the teacher be recommended to use a syllabus of topics or questions, either written or printed, in the conduct of such recitations.—*From a recent Special Report to the School Board of St. Louis.*

ARITHMETICAL SIGNS.

In an article on this subject in the October number, the writer states that "in the expression $6 \div 2 \times 3$, the result may be made either 9 or 1. The first is undoubtedly correct." I question this statement. As "usage has settled these matters", we will refer to algebra where the most extensive use of these signs is made. In the expression $a \div ab$, the sign is understood between a and b. Now, according to the writers's theory, the result is "undoubtedly" b, whereas the true result is $\frac{a}{ab} = \frac{1}{b}$.

It seems to me that we should so teach these signs that our pupils will not have to unlearn anything when they study the higher branches of mathematics. The sign of multiplication should have precedence, that is, the operation indicated by it should be performed first, next comes division, then addition and subtraction. Examples: $4 \times 6 \div 2 \times 3 = 4$. $4 + 6 \div 8 \times 2 - 3 = 1\frac{3}{8}$.

F. H. Tuft.

Findlay, O.

——"I can not doubt that woman has an equal claim with man to all the advantages of our universities. Universities can not be duplicated for the accommodation of the sexes any more than churches. There is no sex in learning more than in religion. It is no more proper for man to determine this question for woman than it would be for woman to determine it for man. Science should be free to all. . . . I doubt not that before this century shall close, all the best universities in Europe and America will educate both men and women."—Dr. *E. O. Haven.*

Editorial Department.

——We take pleasure in calling attention to the brief and practical contributions in this number. Miss Lathrop's admirable paper exposes a great, if not *the* great, defect in the reading exercise in many schools. It is a dull, mechanical utterance of words, spiritless and senseless. Prof. Phelps concludes this month his second series of papers on methods of teaching for district schools. Such sketches of practical methods of teaching are very suggestive to all inquiring and progressive teachers, and we hope that the advanced series may appear in our next volume. When too late to correct the mistake, it was discovered that the sketch of the lesson in subtraction was omitted. Mr. Watkins also concludes his series of valuable papers on the teaching of spelling. No one who has carefully read these papers, needs be told that the views and methods presented in them are the result of thought and experiment. The idea of making the spelling exercise the occasion of indirect instruction in other subjects, will certainly be new to those teachers who teach spelling "for its own sake" and by one stereotyped method.

——The paper in this number on "Case in Grammar" is a specimen of them hair splitting reasoning which characterizes many English grammarians. How does the writer prove that nouns sustain an indefinite number of relations to other words? By passing from the several kinds or classes of relations, which properly constitute case, to the special or individual relations expressed *by* the different prepositions. How is this justified? By a quibble, the relation of the noun *to* the preposition, which is its objective relation, being ruled out! We let the second objection pass for what it is worth. The third and fourth objections are not valid. It is as absurd to test the correctness of one view of case by rules based upon the opposite view, as it would be to try a Christian by the requirements of the Mohammedan religion. No author, defining case to be the relation of a noun or pronoun to other words, would use such rules as those cited. His rules might be: "The possessive *form* of the noun is made by adding the apostrophe and the letter *s* to the nominative"; "A noun used as the object of a verb or preposition is in the objective case." The fifth objection is based on the assumption that the making of case a relation necessarily excludes the consideration of *form*. This is a mistake. The pupil is also taught the two case-forms of nouns and the three case-forms of pronouns, and *their proper use*. "*Him* discovered a planet" is incorrect, because the word "Him" used in the nominative relation or case, has not the nominative *form*. But it is not our purpose to discuss this subject. We think it makes but little practical difference whether case is defined to be the form, or the use, or the relation of a noun. The essential thing is, that all rules and other instruction be made to conform to the definition, whatever it may be.

If form is case, the English noun has but *two* cases and the pronoun *three*. If use is case, there are as many cases as there are kinds or classes of uses. If relation is case, there are six cases, nominative, possessive, objective, predicative, appositive, and independent. As a matter of fact, the essential thing in parsing an English noun is to determine its *relation*, and this, excepting the possessive, is not denoted by its form. For this and other reasons, we prefer to call the relation of a noun case. It might be better to teach these six relations under the term *relation*, and apply the term case to that which *denotes* the relation, whatever this may be.

—— One of the most appreciative estimates of the teacher's calling, which we have ever read, is found in that remarkable book "Ecce Homo", which a few years since caused so great a sensation. The author contrasts preaching and teaching, and decides that the latter is a far more powerful agent, even in the direction of moral results. He claims that the teacher has the great advantage of acting upon his pupils "incessantly, intensely, and by countless different methods for a series of years." The teacher can also supplement moral suasion by authority, "a most potent and indispensable agent." The importance of this view is shown by tracing the effects of those peremptory laws which for ages were imposed upon the nations and enforced by punishment, until at last the time came when "the principle of all law was revealed, and Christian humanity became the self legislating life of mankind." We quote the rest of the passage:

"Thus did the law bring men to Christ. Now what the law did for the race, the schoolmaster does for the individual. He imposes rules, assigning a penalty for disobedience. Under this rule the pupil grows up, until order, punctuality, industry, justice, and mercy to his school fellows become the habits of his life. Then when the time comes, the strict rule relaxes, the pupil is taken into the master's confidence, his obedience becomes reasonable, a living morality. If the teacher be one whose own morality attains the standard of Christian enthusiasm, the pupil is more likely to be initiated into the same supreme mystery than if he stood in any other relation to him. There is no moral influence in the world, excepting that occasionally exerted by great men, comparable to that of a good teacher; there is no position in which a man's merits, considered as moral levers, have so much purchase. Therefore the whole question of education—what the method of it should be, what men should be employed in it—is pre-eminently a question in which Christians are bound by their humanity to interest themselves."

It is possible that the writer has not made due allowance for those spiritual and divine agencies which enforce and supplement the preacher's work, but certainly his estimate of the far-reaching and powerful influence of the teacher's instruction and example is eminently just. Education is a matter of transcendent importance, and the prime questions in education center in the teacher.

—— We have carefully re-read Governor Brown's address of welcome to the National Educational Convention at St. Louis, and especially that portion which questions the value of education as a promoter of virtue and morality, and which was so severely criticised. His belief that an education confined merely to the acquisition of knowledge, to the intellect, only changes the direc-

tion and type of crime, is certainly shared by many thoughtful persons. His great mistake, as it seems to us, lies in the assumption that this is the character of American education—a mistake which the late clamor in favor of confining our public schools "to the cultivation of the intelligence", somewhat excuses in a business man and politician. The evidence is, however, abundant that American education is a great "moral renovator", and it may be shown, we think, that the "intelligent rascality" of the day is chiefly due to causes outside of our schools But there is a great truth and an imperative duty underlying the Governor's criticism—the truth is, that the development of character, moral training, is the highest function of the American school, public or private, and the duty is to embody this truth more vitally and effectively in school instruction and discipline. Instead of attempting to divorce scholarship and moral character in school training, they must be more effectively and indissolubly united. It is true, as was claimed by one of the speakers who replied to Governor Brown, that the discipline of the schools which enforces punctuality and regularity, and constantly trains the pupil to suppress mere self-will and inclination, is a good school of morality, but something more than this is needed. Self-control to be trustworthy must rest upon moral principle as well as habit. Right and duty must have an authoritative voice in the soul. Conscience to be truly regal must rule by a higher authority than itself.

—— In the little volume entitled "Wear and Tear", written by a Philadelphia physician, over-study is declared to be one of the chief causes of the nervous irritability and ill-health of school girls. It is the opinion of the author that, while healthy girls may be able at seventeen to study, with proper precautions, as well as boys, the over-use or even a very steady use of the brain before this age is dangerous to health. He unqualifiedly condemns the too common practice of tasking girls between thirteen and seventeen so that they may be obliged to study from two to three hours out of school, and yet schools with the highest reputation are charged with even greater folly than this. A late report of the board of education of Massachusetts is cited as authority for the statement, that, in a school of eighty pupils, "thirty-one studied three and one-half hours, thirty-five studied four hours, and twelve from four to seven hours, *in addition to the six hours in school.*" Of these pupils, "only fifty-four had refreshing sleep; fifty-nine had headaches or constant weariness, and only fifteen were perfectly well"—and this is given as a common experience. We are also told that it is the best medical opinion that men should not use the brain more than six hours, nor children more than three—an opinion that seems to us to need some qualification and explanation. We do not see how any one can help using the brain while awake, and we judge that the proper amount of brain action depends much upon its kind and conditions. An alternation of study and recitation, with recesses and lighter exercises in music, writing, etc., interspersed, is certainly less exhausting than continuous book study. But this subject is too large to discuss in a single paragraph, and we can only emphasize the caution against the over-tasking of children with home study. Pupils from twelve to sixteen years of age should not be required to study out

of school more than one hour a day, and no young person should devote more than *eight hours* daily to school studies and exercises. The opinion entertained by many physicians that girls from thirteen to seventeen years of age can not endure as much hard study as boys, is worthy of serious consideration. If we mistake not, the girls in our high schools are actually studying more hours daily than the boys, and with less out-door exercise and more demands of society.

—— A COUNTRY teacher (J. H. K.) calls our attention to the importance of teachers' using plain and common-sense language, especially in their intercourse with their patrons and the people generally. He thinks that the influence of many teachers is greatly lessened by the pedantry shown by them in the use of technical and unusual words. He is pleased to compliment our contributors for their clear and simple language—language that can be understood by any reader of ordinary intelligence. We think this journal may at least be justly commended for its comparative freedom from high-flown rhetoric. We recently rejected a somewhat elaborate paper on an important topic chiefly on account of its stilted and turgid style, and our pen often makes sad work with the "fine passages" which adorn (?) the contributions sent us by young writers. This tendency to use high-sounding language often manifests itself at teachers' institutes, both in the impromptu discussions and in the more formal addresses. We have often been amused at the number and length of words, the amount of "empty breath", used by certain teachers who fancy that the orator is in them. A few simple thoughts on a common-place subject are sometimes completely hidden under a mass of verbiage. But there is too much evidence that teachers are not sinners in this direction above all men who speak in public.

THE NORMAL PROBLEM.

It has long been apparent to all thoughtful friends of the American school system that it can not attain needed efficiency so long as the great majority of teachers bring no special preparation to their work, and there is now cheering evidence that the necessity of such preparation is receiving public recognition. Whatever else may be done, if the qualifications of teachers are not improved by normal training, the instruction of our schools can never be made rational and efficient. We can not depend upon experience, for American teachers, as a class, do not remain in the profession, if such it may be called, more than four years, and it is believed that full one-half do not teach more than four terms. This fact increases the necessity of special preparation. These young teachers must be instructed in their important duties before assuming them, and they must receive constant help while they remain in the business. But how can this be done? This is the most vital question involved in the improvement of American schools. It is plain that State Normal Schools of a high grade will

alone meet the demands of those who intend to make teaching a life profession. They need thorough and systematic normal instruction and training. For the present, at least, it seems idle to expect that all or even a majority of American teachers will attend normal schools of high grade. Hence there is demand for a class of normal schools of a more elementary character, placed within easy reach of non professional teachers, and adapted to their circumstances and needs. What should be the character of these elementary normal schools? How should they be organized and supported? Illinois has answered these questions by initiating a system of county normal schools to supplement her two liberally endowed State Normal Universities, and, in the extract from Superintendent Kissell's forthcoming report, found in this number, and to which special attention is called, it is recommended that the State of Iowa be divided into a few normal districts, and that a *primary* normal school be established in each. The fear that a system of county or district normal schools of a primary grade will defeat the higher normal schools, so imperatively needed by the profession, causes us to hesitate in accepting either of these plans.

It strikes us that it would be better to organize several State Normal Schools with two courses of training, one for primary teachers, and then meet the wants of more temporary teachers by a thorough system of normal institutes, with courses of instruction and training continuing from six to twelve weeks. It is taken for granted the public schools and other academic institutions may be depended upon to teach the elementary branches, and that the chief attention of these normal institutes may be given to normal instruction and training, with such a full review of the common branches as may be necessary to elucidate proper methods of teaching them. The State should be divided into normal institute districts, two or more counties being united for this purpose, and the sessions being held alternately in the several counties. At first these districts would necessarily be large, since there are but few teachers prepared to fill the position of a normal instructor, and, besides, the demand for normal training is not now great enough to sustain many such institutes. We should hope to see eventually a normal institute held annually in every county. These normal institutes should aim to prepare teachers for the country schools and for the lower departments of graded schools, and, certainly, the elementary normal training thus provided, with such valuable help as the county teachers' institute may furnish annually, would much improve the qualifications and efficiency of the great body of our teachers.

It is conceded that practical difficulties beset the organization of such a normal system, but we think we see how they may all be overcome. One important advantage of the system is its *cheapness*. The greater part of the expense would be incurred in the establishment and support of the few normal schools proper. Rooms for the normal institutes would be furnished by public schools, colleges, and other institutions, and a small sum would supply the apparatus and other appliances needed. Only a small corps of instructors for each institute would be required. The essential thing is, that the State earnestly undertakes the work.

INSTRUCTION IN THE CLEVELAND SCHOOLS.

An invitation to attend the October meeting of the Northeastern Ohio Teachers' Association afforded us the coveted opportunity to visit again the Cleveland schools. We had but one day and our visit was too brief to permit much examination into details, but we noted several things which, we think, will interest our readers.

The most obvious change since our former visit in 1867, is the prominence given to oral instruction, especially in the primary grades. The only book used by the pupils the first three years is the reader, all the other lessons being developed by the teachers. In the fourth year an arithmetic may be used and an elementary geography is introduced, but the books seem to be little studied by the pupils. They are used more as aids to the teacher than as text-books for study.

The subjects taught in the primary schools, covering a period of four years, are reading, spelling, printing and writing, vocal music, arithmetic, lessons on objects and common things, composition, lessons preparatory to geography (third year), elementary geography (fourth year), and oral grammar (fourth year). Printing is taught the first two terms, and is then succeeded by writing which is begun the second term. All the other subjects, geography excepted, are taught during the entire four years. Drawing is not required to be taught, but will be as soon as a satisfactory method of instruction is adopted.

The course of instruction in each of these subjects is prescribed with considerable minuteness in a syllabus, but we were pleased to observe that the teachers are left commendably free in the choice of methods. Reading, for example, is taught by the phonic method, or the word method, or by both of these methods combined, as teachers may prefer. Generally a few words are first taught as wholes, then their phonic elements, and then new words are taught through their phonic elements The aim of the only exercise in primary reading we witnessed, was to lead the pupils to make out the words by combining the sounds composing them—by phonic synthesis. As a general practice the pupils *print* all the words taught the first term, but in several schools the pupils first learn to read *script*, and here they are taught to write from the beginning. An excellent feature of the course of instruction in arithmetic is the use of small numbers, ten being the largest number introduced the first term, twenty the first year, and one hundred the second year: Both numbers and their combinations are taught objectively, and the lessons are well graded.

Object lessons and language lessons are prominent exercises in the primary course. The latter are carefully graded, beginning with the copying of words and sentences printed on the board by the teacher, and passing to the writing of sentences expressing facts observed, short descriptions developed by object lessons, simple descriptions of pictures and actions, sentences containing one or more given words, etc. These written exercises are preceded by conversation exercises, and lessons on common things afford much excellent drill in talking. Constant attention is given to the correction of common errors. We found these language lessons in progress in nearly every primary school which

we visited. The series of object lessons mapped out in the syllabus is quite full, but, as we were not so fortunate as to see any lesson given, we will not attempt to give an idea of what is accomplished in this direction.

We may add, in passing, that the entire course of instruction in these primary schools presents a striking contrast to the old text-book regime of twenty years ago, which filled the day with a dreary round of book-lessons. The present system makes much larger demands upon teachers. They are thrown upon their own skill and resources, and, except in reading, they have not even a manual of lessons to guide them. This requires careful preparation to secure method and accuracy—a preparation which only well-qualified teachers can successfully make. The instruction also needs to be subjected to minute and suggestive supervision to secure system and thoroughness. Both of these conditions are well met at Cleveland. It is true that but few of the primary teachers have been thoroughly trained in oral methods, but, as a class, they are good scholars, and they have proved very apt in catching the spirit as well as the form of oral teaching. The recent appointment of a special superintendent of the primary classes will greatly aid in securing still better results.

The grammar-school course also covers a period of four years. It includes vocal music, reading, spelling, writing composition, arithmetic, geography, grammar, U. S. history (last two years), and the elements of physics (last year). The schools are so classified that each teacher has charge of but one class of pupils, and the entire class recites together. This arrangement keeps the pupils under class instruction and drill the greater part of the day, and the other part is largely devoted to the solution of problems and the preparation of written exercises, leaving, we judge, comparatively little time for old-fashioned study. The teachers have time to give special attention to the more backward pupils, and the classes make quite even as well as rapid progress.

The fourth reader is used the first year, with juvenile periodicals in classes where they are voluntarily provided by the pupils. The fifth reader is used the second year, also selections from the works of English poets and prose writers, with elocutionary exercises, the third and fourth years. One object of this varied course of reading is to give the pupils a knowledge of and a taste for the works of the best writers, and it is also claimed that classes thus taught read new pieces more intelligently than those which are only drilled in the ordinary school readers. We heard reading in several of the rooms, and it seemed to us that the classes did not read the pieces on which they had been drilled, as well as formerly, but this loss, if it be one, may be more than made good by the advantages referred to above.

No spelling-book is used in the schools until the third year of the grammar-school course (the seventh of the entire course). Previous to this the spelling drills include the words in the reading lessons, and all technical terms used in the course of instruction. Composition, consisting of narrative and descriptive exercises, letter writing, etc., is continued through the four years. The study of a text-book in English grammar is begun the third year, the instruction the three preceding years being oral, the third year being devoted to synthetic exercises.

Fifteen years ago mental arithmetic was made a hobby in the Cleveland

schools. Some ten years since the recitations in mental and written arithmetic were combined, and now no separate mental arithmetic is used. The mental exercises are given by the teachers, and many of the problems in the written arithmetic, with smaller numbers substituted, are solved mentally and analytically. This does very well, but we think, of course, that it would be better to use a text-book containing both mental and written problems, the former being introductory to the written processes and, at the same time, affording an adequate drill in analysis.

In one of the grammar schools we witnessed an exercise in elementary physics, conducted by one of the most skillful lady teachers in the country. The lesson was on electricity, and consisted of a few simple experiments, showing the phenomena of electric attraction and repulsion. Through the observation of these facts, the pupils were led to deduce and state the laws, and then apply them. This elementary course in physics, lately introduced, is designed to give the pupils, many of whom do not enter the high schools, some knowledge of common physical phenomena and the machines and instruments in most general use. The course consists of the thirty-nine lessons presented in "Hotze's First Lessons in Physics", which is used as a guide. The lessons are given weekly.

We took some pains to learn the results of the instruction in vocal music. We witnessed two exercises conducted by Prof. Stewart, one in the Brownell Grammar School and the other in the Central High School, the two schools of which in other years we had charge, and we heard singing in several of the lower schools. We were greatly pleased. The pupils exhibited a knowledge of music which, fifteen years ago, would have been considered wonderful. They sang accurately several measures of new music played on the piano; gave, singly and in concert, the pitch-name of sounds from the piano, and sang at sight, with great accuracy and confidence, a new choral written upon the board. The drills showed a remarkable cultivation of ear and voice, and a very familiar acquaintance with musical notation, intervals, chords, etc. A very noticeable and commendable result was the fact, that *all* the pupils sang, and apparently, at least, with the spirit as well as the voice. The instruction in the lower schools is given by the regular teachers under Prof. Stewart's supervision.

The only exercise we witnessed in the Central High School, besides the drill in music, was the beginning of the weekly exhibition in composition and declamation, and so we venture no observations, either on the course of study or the methods of instruction. The order and spirit of the school were both admirable. When an opportunity occurs, we shall try to spend time enough in the two high schools of Cleveland to determine the changes and progress made in the past fifteen years,—of which we will make due report to our readers.

We take pleasure in adding that our visit to the Cleveland schools but increased our very favorable opinion of their condition and progress. We, of course, observed imperfections incident to a transition from one system to another, and which time alone can overcome. Superintendent Rickoff has undertaken a very difficult work, and very few men would be able to carry his plans to a successful issue. He is discharging his duties with great energy and efficiency.

COUNTY SCHOOL SUPERVISION.

Practical wisdom places every important business enterprise under intelligent oversight and direction, and the more complicated the business and the more costly the material handled, the more direct and thorough the supervision. Thus railroads, mines and manufactories are all watched over by men who are not only entrusted with their general direction, but who are charged with the special duty of seeing that each part of the work is done in the best possible manner.

What universal experience has shown to be necessary in the management of business enterprises, is equally necessary in directing a system of education. Indeed, there is not a reason that can be urged in favor of a directing head for a cotton-mill, that does not apply with equal force to the necessity of supervision in a system of schools. Whether we consider the difficult and complicated processes involved, the nature and value of the material wrought upon, or the importance of the principles which guide to success, the cotton-mill is vastly inferior to the school, and mistakes in its management are far less destructive and serious. Besides, business enterprises are, as a general rule, in the hands of those who have a pecuniary and personal interest in their success. The directors of a railroad or factory are also stockholders, and if they, unwilling to depend upon their own wisdom, seek the guidance of a skillful and experienced superintendent, much less can the local directors of our schools, who often feel little personal interest in their success, be relied upon to give them efficiency and the highest usefulness.

But it is too late in the history of school progress to discuss the importance of supervision as a means of school improvement. Its value has been settled by the experience of all countries where it has been employed. To it, more than to any other agency, normal training excepted, is due the great excellence of the school system of Prussia and Holland. Supervision has been a potent agency in the elevation of the graded schools of our cities and towns. A wider observation fully justifies the statement we made a few years since, that "there is not a system of graded schools in the country in efficient condition, in which this agency has been ignored; and, other things being equal, the thoroughness of their supervision is a measure of the efficiency and progress of the schools." It is also evident that what has proved so beneficial to the graded schools, would prove equally valuable to the unclassified schools of the townships. Efficient supervision would vitalize these now neglected schools and greatly add to their efficiency and success. It is beyond question one of their greatest needs.

The practical inquiry is, How can the township schools be provided with efficient direction and oversight? The educators of the country are very generallly agreed that the most feasible plan is the adoption of a system of county supervision, and this opinion has become law in several States. It is not claimed that a single superintendent in each county will be able to give the several schools all the attention they require, and it is conceded that in some of the counties it will be difficult to secure superintendents fully qualified to discharge efficiently the duties of the office. But, all things considered, the

county system promises and attains larger success than any other. Township supervision has, it is true, the advantage of more constant and personal oversight, but it fails to secure superintendents possessing the requisite qualifications, and all experience has proved it ineffective. Efficient supervision requires an intelligent, capable superintendent.

The plan of supervision by congressional or judicial districts, which is urged by some, would doubtless secure more competent officers than the county system, but they would be too far removed from the schools, and their visits would necessarily be too unfrequent to accomplish what is needed. Nothing less than the thorough *personal* inspection of each school will suffice. The two essential conditions of an efficient supervisory system are competent superintendents and the direct and personal inspection of each school. These conditions are best met by county supervisiou.

CLOSE OF FIRST VOLUME.

This number closes the first volume of the NATIONAL TEACHER. Including the index and excluding the advertisements, the volume contains 642 pages—an average of about *forty-three* pages of reading matter to each number. Not counting the first three numbers, which were extra, the volume contains 525 pages. This is several pages a number more than promised.

We leave our readers to decide respecting the practical value of the matter which has filled these pages. If words of strong commendation from all classes of teachers, throughout the country, may be accepted as evidence of merit, this first volume has won for the NATIONAL TEACHER the right to live. The contributed papers have certainly honored our standing promise to spare no pains to secure for our readers the best experience of the country in school instruction and management. Our corps of writers has included N. A. CALKINS, Superintendent of the Primary Schools of New York City; Prof. J. C. GREENOUGH, now Principal of the Rhode Island State Normal School, Providence; Hon. W. D. HENKLE, ex School Commissioner of Ohio; Dr. THOMAS HILL, ex President of Harvard College; JOHN HANCOCK, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Cincinnati; Miss DELIA A. LATHROP, Principal of the Cincinnati Normal School; Prof. S. A. NORTON, Germany; Hon. B. G. NORTHROP, State Secretary of Education, Conn.; Prof. WM. F. PHELPS, Principal of the State Normal School, Winona, Minn.; Hon. J. L. PICKARD, Superintendent of the Public Schools of Chicago; W. H. WYNN, Deputy State School Superintendent, Iowa; and other eminent and practical educators.

The second volume will be opened with an earnest endeavor to make it worthy of the profession. The January number will appear in a more attractive cover, and other improvements may be expected. We did not expect that the TEACHER would more than pay expenses the first year, and, if it has done this, we shall be satisfied. We hope to close the year 1872 with at least four times our present circulation. To attain this result, we confidently rely upon the professional spirit of American teachers.

MISCELLANY.

——We discontinue sending the NATIONAL TEACHER when the time of a subscription expires. Those of our readers whose subscriptions close with the present number, should renew at once, if they wish the TEACHER to continue its monthly visits. We trust that all subscribers to the first volume are so well pleased that they will not only renew but will secure one or more other subscriptions. An extra copy will be sent *gratis* for every FIVE subscriptions at $1.50 each. We hope to mail our January number before Christmas.

——We can still supply back numbers of the NATIONAL TEACHER from July. The numbers from July to December inclusive will be sent, postage prepaid, for 75 cents. We shall soon bind, in muslin, with leather back, a few copies of the first volume of the TEACHER. It will contain 642 pages, and the price, sent by mail, post-paid, will be $2.25—the cheapest educational volume yet offered to the teachers of this country.

—— We are happy to announce that, by invitation of Superintendent Philbrick, the next meeting of the National Educational Association will be held in the city of Boston. A grand gathering of the educational forces of the country may be expected. Arrangements for the meeting will be made and announced at an early day.——We learn that the delay in publishing the proceedings of the St. Louis meeting is due to the failure of the secretary to furnish promptly the minutes of the General Section. It is hoped that all hinderances are now removed, and that the volume will soon appear.

—— PROF. PHELPS, of Minnesota, wishes us to correct an error in our report of his remarks on "Model Schools", at the St. Louis meeting. Instead of advocating "the separation of experimental, model, and normal schools", he suggested that "Model Schools" and "Schools of Practice" or "Experimental Schools" should be *distinct from each other;* that a school could not be a "model" and at the same time be an experimental school for the practice of temporary and tyro teachers. The true idea of a model school is, that it is a *model* to be observed and studied, and, to this end, it must be taught by model teachers. He urged that the model school and school of practice should be distinct departments of the Normal School, but not separated from it. We were misled by the report in the St. Louis papers.

—— THE *Indiana School Journal* for November contains an article on "Compulsory Education", which the editor states was furnished by "Hon. Thomas D. Crow, School Commissioner of Ohio." As a matter of history, it seems a duty to say that Mr. Crow is not and never has been School Commissioner of Ohio. He is a clerk in the School Commissioner's office. This mistake of our enterprising contemporary recalls its publication last year of the bill prepared by School Commissioner Henkle and found in his annual report, as the *law* of Ohio regulating religious exercises in the public schools. This "bill" was never even introduced into either branch of the General Assembly, and Ohio has no law on the subject. You are always safe, Bro. Bell, when you go to the MONTHLY for Ohio news.

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.—In noticing schools hereafter we shall not report percentages of school attendance except when made out on the basis of the *monthly enrollment.* Experience shows that the "average number belonging" can not be made practically a uniform basis, and the "weekly enrollment" brings the per cent. of attendance too near one hundred to convey a just impression respecting

the actual degree of regularity, and, besides, to make out percentages of school attendance weekly "costs more than it comes to." An observance of the following simple directions will make the monthly enrollment a uniform basis:

1. Enroll every pupil who attends school more than *one-half day* in the month, four school weeks being considered a month, except when shortened by holidays.

2. When pupils have been transferred in the month from one school to another in the same system, count their attendance in the school *from* which the transfer was made.

3. To find the per cent. of attendance, divide the average daily attendance for the month by the number of pupils enrolled.

This presents a simple basis of uniformity. The average daily attendance is a definite item, and the number enrolled in the month can be easily ascertained from the record of daily attendance. We shall be pleased to receive reports for the month of *November*, made out in accordance with the above directions. We have the assurance of the State Commissioner that this basis will be adopted by the School Department as soon as the present supply of blanks is exhausted.

The above editorial, written for the *Ohio Educational Monthly*, has special reference to the schools of Ohio, but it is believed to be of sufficient general interest to justify its insertion in the NATIONAL TEACHER.

PERSONAL.—Miss H. L. Keeler has been appointed assistant superintendent of the Cleveland schools, with special charge of the primary grades.——Mr. E. O. Vaile has resigned the principalship of the Middle School District, Columbus, O., to accept a position as teacher in the Hughes High School, Cincinnati.——Miss A. M. Hawley, of the Painesville High School, succeeds Mr. Harvey as superintendent, at a salary of $1,200.——J. M. Clyde, late of Mt. Sterling, Ky., has taken charge of the Sharpsburg Academy, Ky.——D. W. Lewis and his wife, for several years connected with the public schools of Washington, Iowa, (the former as superintendent,) have opened a school among the Winnebago Indians.——Prof. J. C. Gilchrist, late principal of the Fairmont Normal School, W, Va., is conducting teachers' institutes in Iowa.——Dr. Solomon Howard has resigned the presidency of the Ohio University at Athens, his resignation to take effect at the close of the current academic term.——J. W. Van Sickle, late principal of the public schools of Osgood, Ind., has taken charge of the Springfield Business College, O.

SCHOOL AFFAIRS IN THE NORTH-CENTRAL STATES.

CHICAGO.—The following private letter contains so much of interest to our readers that we take the liberty to publish it, and to add the fact, learned from other sources, that, after the fire, Sup't Pickard nobly offered to serve the city one year *without pay*:

CHICAGO, *November* 15, 1871.

FRIEND WHITE: It may interest you to know our exact standing in educational matters since the fire. We lost fourteen buildings used for school purposes, though four of these were rented buildings. The estimated value of the ten buildings owned by the city, together with furniture, heating apparatus, and outside appurtenances, is $250,000. Upon this there was no insurance. Six of the buildings destroyed were occupied as grammar-school buildings; the remainder were primary buildings or branch-school buildings. All the dwellings within the limits of four grammar-school districts were swept off, with a single exception. More than half the dwellings in the three other grammar-school districts were destroyed. The territory of the primary-school districts is the same as the grammar districts, so far as they extend. The number of pupils in the burned school buildings upon the Friday pre-

ceding the fire, was not far from 9,000. The number of teachers employed in these buildings was nearly 150. So much for dry statistics.

In the midst of the utter desolation, our teachers' hearts were found true to the interests of the city which they had served; and more than true to each other. At a meeting of teachers called on the Thursday succeeding the fire, it was resolved:

"That we tender our services to the city for such compensation as the city may be able to give us."

Those who could live for a time without employment, gave place to those who had been left destitute.

In less than two weeks after the fire, the schools were entirely reorganized; all were opened Monday, Oct. 23, except two schools in the north division. The two buildings remaining in that division of the city were needed for three weeks longer as places of refuge for homeless families. On Monday, Nov. 13th, these two were reopened. Without a scrap of statistical or financial records, without a blank of any kind, but not without good heart, we begin anew. Our special teachers have left us, but we are carrying on the work as of old, gathering up the fragments, fastening the ends, and getting ready for an onward movement.

What the effect is to be upon our school interests, we can not now say. But if earnest work will repair the damage, and save us from the terrible demoralization of those two dreadful weeks of suspension, you may still look to Chicago for some good results. Much of my time, since the schools were fairly started again, has been given to matters of relief of pupils and teachers who were sufferers by the fire. To this end generous contributions have come from every quarter, and blessings are invoked daily for the friends who have thought so kindly of us. Hands, head, and heart have all been full, and, as cold weather comes upon us, we may expect little release. With fifteen hours' work each day, I still desire more time, as much needs to be done. But daylight shines through the cloud, and the prospect is bright and cheering. * * * * Yours sincerely, J. L. PICKARD.

OHIO.—A meeting of the Montgomery County Teachers' Association was held in Dayton on Saturday, Nov. 25th, with a good attendance and with a very interesting and profitable programme of exercises. Hon. T. W. Harvey, State School Commissioner, delivered an able address on "The Ohio School System", which elicited a hearty vote of thanks, with the request of a copy for publication. This was followed by a lesson to a class of children, illustrating the phonic method of reading, by Miss Traebing; a lesson by Miss Emma Brown, showing her method of teaching reading; a discussion on the best method of teaching reading, opened by Sup't Higley; an explanation of his method of teaching vocal music in the schools, by Mr. Clarke; and a model programme of daily exercises, presented by Mr. Morris. An excellent lunch was furnished by the Dayton teachers.——We are pleased to learn that Dayton has, for four years past, held a city normal institute the first week of each school year for the special preparation of its teachers for the work before them. The institute held this year, under Sup't Higley's supervision, was very successful, both in interest and profit.

MARIETTA COLLEGE.—The new college year has opened unusually well. The senior, sophomore, and freshman classes are each larger than in any former year. The fresman class numbers thirty-five. The college has never been in so prosperous a condition. The prizes for scholarship—first, $40.00; second, $20.00—have been awarded for the year 1870–71 as follows:

Class of 1872—D. McKay, Belpre; J. L. Davis, Thurman.

Class of 1873—J. Gaylord, Norfolk, Conn.; W. S. Pattin, Harmar.

Class of 1874—D. F. Davis, Ironton; F. R. McCormick, Marietta.

WEST VIRGINIA.—Many of the friends of the present system of free schools have ears that the opposition is strong enough to secure such unfavorable legislation as ie abolition of the county superintendency and the township system. The former i the right arm of the system, and nothing could be more disastrous than the going ack to the old county system, as was done in Tennessee. We hope and trust that ll fears of such unwise action are unfounded. The dominancy of political parties i West Virginia will depend much upon the school question. The party that falters i the support of public education, will be defeated, as it ought to be.——The state chool fund for the current school year has been apportioned and distributed. It mounted to $174,896.62, or about $1.08 for each youth of school age. The city of Wheeling received $8,359.58.——It is due ourself to say that the corps of editors ppointed at the Ravenswood meeting of the State Association, has sent us no natter for the proposed "West Virginia Edition"—a fact due, as we suppose, to the emoval from the State of two of the editors appointed. The proceedings of the Ravenswood meeting were also not furnished us, and hence were not published. The appropriation from the Peabody Fund, whereby the teachers and school officers f West Virginia can obtain THE NATIONAL TEACHER at *half price* (75 cts.), has been enewed for the year 1871-2. Subscriptions should be sent directly to the editor, Columbus, Ohio.

WHEELING.—The board of education has unanimously decided that it has the legal ower to divide the school funds and organize separate schools for the Catholics, ut it refuses to take such action, believing it to be "inexpedient."——We regret to earn that Sup't Williams has been obliged to ask for leave of absence to obtain nedical treatment. We hope he may obtain needed relief, and soon resume his luties.

EASTERN AND MIDDLE STATES.

PENNSYLVANIA.—We recently attended three teachers' institutes in Eastern Pennylvania, and to say that they were "rousers" is to use only expressive English. The institute in Bucks county enrolled 270 teachers, and the court-room was crowded it nearly all the day sessions and literally packed in the evenings. In Chester ounty we met 528 teachers, and more than 1000 citizens visited the institute. The arge hall was well filled by day, and was crowded in the evening. In Berks county bout 450 teachers were enrolled, including all the teachers in the public schools of Reading. At each of these institutes a fee (from 25 to 50 cents) was charged for dmission to the evening lectures. The teachers were supplied with tickets for the full course at reduced rates, and course tickets were also sold to citizens. The corps of evening speakers in Chester county included Senator Patterson, of New Hampshire, Daniel Daugherty, Esq., and Rev. A. A. Willets, of Philadelphia, and other "star" lecturers, and Messrs. Daugherty and Willets were among the lecturers in Bucks county. The lecture of Senator Patterson on "The Relation of Education to Labor" was specially appropriate as well as excellent. The day sessions were devoted to professional instruction of a practical character. In Bucks county we assisted Professors Brooks, of Millersville, Shoemaker, of Philadelphia, Harding, of New York, and Woodruff, formerly of Chester county, and Miss Flora T. Parsons, of Rochester, N. Y.; in Chester, Prof. J. B. Roberts, of Philadelphia, and Miss Parsons; and in Berks, Prof. Kidd, of Indiana, and Prof. Houston, of Philadelphia. In nearly all the districts in each county, the teachers were granted three to five days without loss of pay. It is unnecessary to add that each of these counties has a live and earnest superintendent.

NEW YORK.—On the 25th of October, the Buffalo State Normal School, the *eighth* institution of the kind established by the State of New York, was formally opened. The occasion was one of great interest. Addresses were delivered by Judge N. K. Hall, of Buffalo, Prof. Henry B. Buckham, the Principal, Joseph Warren, of the Board of Trustees, Hon. A. B. Weaver, State School Superintendent, Ray T. Spencer, of the Buffalo Central School, and Dr. Armstrong, of the Fredonia Normal School. We learn from Judge Hall's address that the site, a valuable block of land, was donated by Father Ketchum, a widely known friend of public schools, and the board of surpervisors and the common council of the city each appropriated $45,000 (which with interest when used, amounted to $100,000), for the erection of the building and the purchase of apparatus. The edifice is very complete in arrangement, and the school has opened under the most favorable auspices. On the first of November there were over seventy students in the normal department.

MASSACHUSETTS.—The Legislature has appropriated $75,000 to establish a fifth State Normal School, to be located at Worcester. Five acres of land have been purchased for the site, and a sub-committee of the State Board, consisting of Messrs. Rice, Chapin, and Philbrick, have charge of the location and erection of the building. It is thus seen that the State having the honor of establishing the first State Normal School in the country, is honoring its leadership by increasing its facilities for normal training.

SOUTHERN STATES.

GEORGIA.—We learn that the Legislature, now in session, is disposed to improve the present defective school law, and thus give the new system better opportunities of success. The official reports to the State School Commissioner from the several counties show that an encouraging beginning has been made, and that the system is gradually gaining favor with the people. The most serious difficulty is the want both of school-houses and the money with which to build them. The power to levy taxes for building purposes is vested in the county boards, and will be more generally exercised when all doubts respecting the permanency of the system are removed.——Dr. J. M. Bonnell, President of the Wesleyan Female College, Macon died suddenly in October of paralysis of the heart.

ATLANTA.—This flourishing city has entered earnestly upon the work of public education. Three new school houses containing eight rooms each, are in process of building, and it is expected that they will be completed early in January, when the free school system will be organized under the supervision of Mr. B. Mallon, late principal of the Girls' High School, Savannah, and formerly superintendent of the public schools of that city. It was the intention at first to open with only the lower grades, but, at a meeting of the board of directors, held Nov. 18th, it was determined to establish a high school also, and thus meet the school wants of the entire community. The following scale of salaries was adopted: Three teachers in high school, $1,800, $1,500, and $1,000; male principals of common schools, $1,500; first male assistant, $900; female teachers, $700 to $450. Nine male teachers and eighteen female are to be employed. Sup't Mallon has entered upon the discharge of his duties, and is busy in preparatory work. He is an experienced, progressive, and competent teacher, and a zealous friend of public education. We wish him the largest success. He is succeeded at Savannah by Mr. W. S. Bogart.

BOOK NOTICES.

THOMPSON & BOWLERS' ECLECTIC SYSTEM OF PENMANSHIP. By L. S. THOMPSON, O. H. BOWLER, and N. E. D. BOWLER. Cincinnati: Wilson, Hinkle & Co.

This excellent system of penmanship has been so long before the public, that it does not need any "notice" from us. With the approval, if not at the request, of one of the authors, we postponed our review until the completion of the system. After waiting nearly a year, we requested the publishers to send us a complete set, which we have been several months in reaching.

The system consists of fourteen copy-books (five books being duplicated in smaller hand for girls), a set of writing-cards, thirty-six in number, a hand-book of explanations, and an exercise-book. The hand-writing, which is the essential thing in any system of penmanship, is similar to the Spencerian, which is sufficient commendation. The copies are graded in a natural and progressive manner, and the pages are conveniently but not over ruled.

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THE NEW AMERICAN SERIES OF READERS: Complete in Five Books. By EPES SARGENT and AMASA MAY. Philadelphia: E. H. Butler & Co.

The most obvious characteristic of this new series of Readers is its compactness. It consists of five thin books, with pages of uniform size (12mo). The first reader contains 48 pages, the second 96, the third 144, the fourth 216, and the fifth 312, making a total of 817 pages in the series. This is a less number of pages than is found in the two higher books of most other series. Several fifth readers in our collection contain over 500 pages each. Another excellence is the large and clear type—a feature that will be welcomed by the still-abused eyes of school children. The type in the fifth reader is the same as the largest used in this journal, while the first two books are printed from great primer type. These two facts, the small number of pages and the large type, make the amount of reading matter much less than in other series. This reduction may be too great; this will depend much upon the character of the selections. Most American reading books contain too much matter. It is impossible to use near all the pieces, if the class drills are made thorough and effective. The selections in this series seem to us well adapted to class use. They are diverse in style and brief—an important characteristic, since pupils are apt to lose interest if kept too long on one piece. We are best pleased with the matter in the three higher books. The lessons in the first reader contain more sense than is found in the first book of several other series, but the authors have still left much room for improvement. We like the idea of introducing but a few *new* words in each lesson, but the number of sentences might be easily increased.

But we must not omit to notice the illustrations, which are not only superior in artistic design and execution, but are also numerous and appropriate. They can not fail to cultivate a taste for what is excellent in art. Indeed, the entire mechanical execution of the series is worthy of high commendation. The typography, illustrations, paper, and binding are all excellent.

LITTELL'S LIVING AGE is emphatically "the best of all our eclectic publications." For further information, see the prospectus in this number.

NEW BOOKS RECEIVED.

HAGAR'S SERIES OF ARITHMETICS; Comprising Primary Lessons in Numbers, Elementary Arithmetic, and Common-School Arithmetic. By D. B. Hagar. Philadelphia: Cowperthwait & Co.

SECOND BOOK ON ANALYTIC ANATOMY, PHYSIOLOGY, AND HYGIENE. Human and Comparative. By Calvin Cutter, M.D. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

HOW TO DO IT. By Edward Everett Hale. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

OUR EYES, AND HOW TO TAKE CARE OF THEM. By H. W. Williams, A.M., M.D. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

ELEMENTS OF PLANE GEOMETRY. By Thomas Hunter, A.M., President of the Normal College of the City of New York. New York: Harper & Brothers.

NATURAL SYSTEM OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR. Introductory Course. By D. B. Chamberlain. New York: Chas. Scribner & Co.

SPENCERIAN PENMANSHIP. In an Improved Form of Copy Book. New York: Ivison, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.

RECENT DISCOVERIES IN SCIENCE, ETC. By Herbert Spencer. New York: D. Appleton & Co.

CROSBY'S GREEK GRAMMAR. Revised Edition. By Alpheus Crosby, Professor in Dartmouth College. New York: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

A COMPENDIOUS GRAMMAR OF THE GREEK LANGUAGE. By Alpheus Crosby. New York: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT: Its Officers and Their Duties. By Ransom H. Gillet. New York; Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

THE SCIENCE OF BEAUTY. By John Bascom, Professor in Williams College. New York: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

A TREATISE ON ENGLISH PUNCTUATION. By John Wilson. New York: Woolworth, Ainsworth & Co.

BARTHOLOMEW'S NEW SERIES OF DRAWING BOOKS. No. I.

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DECEMBER, 1870.

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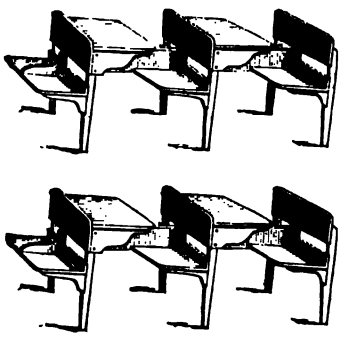

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